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WORLD HISTORY

The Easy Way

By

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PREFACE

The growing importance of the United States in world affairs makes it essential that young Americans become more and better informed about the history of European, Asiatic and African countries so that they can grasp the broad sweep of historical forces that have shaped the world of today.

Plato and Homer, Mohammed and Charlemagne, Shakespeare and Bacon, Robespierre and Napoleon, Metternich and Bismarck, Churchill and Roosevelt — these and scores of others have been the architects of the world in which we live.

From Cairo to Capetown, from Paris to San Francisco, peoples have developed a deeper understanding of the dignity of human life and the brotherhood of man. Incredibly fast transportation bridges continents and seas, making the problems of any one nation the concern of all.

This *Basic Review of World History* attempts to provide a book that will help students understand the broad concepts of government, international relations, and the social and artistic achievements that mark our 20th Century. It is to be used as a supplement to the textbook, as a basic textbook or as a review of already-learned material. Its special features include:

1. Language that is on the level of comprehension of high school and upper junior high school students. Definitions of terms and the pronunciation of names are given as they appear in the text.
2. Visual aids such as illustrations and maps help to clarify word pictures. Charts and tables summarize information in easy-to-learn form.
3. Cross-references and a complete index make it easy to locate and check desired information.
4. The inclusion of recent events and findings of historical research to make the text up-to-the-minute.
5. Emphasis on modern times. Two-thirds of the book covers events since 1750.
6. A variety and abundance of testing material for each chapter.

The author hopes that students will be better-informed and more interested observers of world affairs after reading and using this book.

— MILTON J. BELASCO

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— M.J.B.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

1. Ancient History

The story of man begins with the squat, hairy creatures of the first Glacial Age and moves slowly on to the Stone Age men who took the first painful steps toward civilization.

With the invention of writing, history was recorded. We have learned about the peoples of ancient times from writings on the Rosetta Stone, the Behistun Rock and many other tablets which wise men have deciphered.

The period of recorded history begins with the Egyptians and other peoples who settled in the "cradle of civilization" — the Fertile Crescent. Among these ancient peoples were the Sumerians, Babylonians, Hittites, Assyrians, Chaldeans, Persians, Phoenicians and Hebrews. Each of these peoples developed a culture of its own. Each contributed a little more toward world civilization — the wheel, calendar, alphabet, geometry, codes of ethics and laws, religions, art and sculpture. Each influenced the others as peoples traveled from place to place and conquered each other.

In the river valleys of the Far East — in India and China — Oriental arts and crafts, customs and religions were being developed.

From East to West, through the centuries, man has progressed, profiting by the thoughts, inventions and discoveries of the people who lived before him.



JAVA



NEANDERTHAL



CRO-MAGNON



SPHINX-PYRAMIDS



ROSETTA STONE



BUDDHA



CONFUCIUS



TEN COMMANDMENTS



HITTITE SCULPTURE



HAMMURABI



Introduction To History

1. *Significance of History*

What Is History? History is the story of man from the time he first appeared on this earth until the present. It is a record of what he has done or tried to do. It describes how man has lived at different periods of time—how he governed himself, earned a living, expressed himself through his religion, his art, his science. In short, it is a biography of the human race.

Why Do We Study History? There are many reasons why we study history. It helps us to understand how human beings have progressed.

1. By knowing the past, we can better understand the present, because the present has grown out of and is a result of the past.
2. It helps us to appreciate the debt that we owe to the peoples of previous civilizations.
3. It has great dramatic value and high ideals, for it tells us of the lives and work of the pioneers in areas—ranging from education to government—which make up our complex way of life.
4. It promotes better understanding among the peoples of the world by showing how many countries have contributed to life as it is lived today.
5. It encourages the use of reason in solving problems, through the gathering and weighing of evidence.

Periods of History. Because man has lived for many hundreds of thousands of years on earth, historians have found it convenient to divide these into several periods of time. Most historians use the following arrangement:

1. **Prehistoric times**—before man kept written records—from about 1,000,000 B.C. to 5000 B.C.
2. **Historic times**—from 5000 B.C. to the present. This period is further divided into:
 - a. Ancient history—from 5000 B.C. to 500 A.D.
 - b. Medieval history—from 500 A.D. to 1500 A.D.
 - c. Modern history—from 1500 A.D. to the present.

In most parts of the world events are recorded by a system that divides time at the birth of Christ. This method of timekeeping makes it simple for historians to organize the records of the past. The letters "B.C." indicate that the event took place "Before Christ." The letters "A.D." (from the Latin *anno Domini*, "in the year of our Lord") indicate that the event took place after the birth of Christ.

2. Prehistoric Man

The Beginning of Mankind. Man probably appeared on this earth almost 1,000,000 years ago, during the first of a series of Ice Ages by which the face of the earth was changed. Four times, great ice caps moved down from the North Pole. They covered the northern



MEN OF THE PREHISTORIC AGE. Early man was squat and thickset, ugly and covered with hair. His life span was short; his enemies were his fellow men and the fierce animals around him. His crudely made weapons were not much help in combat with his animal enemies. These drawings show the changes in man's features.

part of Europe, Asia and America as far as France and the Great Lakes. As they receded and then returned, separated by thousands of years in time, they left many changes.

Before the Ice Ages, Africa and Europe were joined, England was part of Europe, and Asia and North America were connected at Alaska. As the last Ice Age ended, more than 15,000 years ago, the Mediterranean Sea was created, separating Africa and Europe; the English Channel split England from Europe and the Bering Strait divided Alaska from Asia.

The earliest man was about 5 feet tall, with chin, nose and forehead more apelike than ours today. We know this from remains in the form of bones that have been discovered on the island of Java and near the city of Peking in China. Hundreds of thousands of years later the *Neanderthal Man* (Nee-an'-der-tal), who lived between 50,000 and 100,000 years ago in central Europe, still was short and squat, with a receding chin and low forehead.

The first modern man, closely resembling human beings of today, appeared about 20,000 years ago in Europe. *Cro-Magnon Man* (kro-man'-yon), as he is known, was about 5 feet 10 inches in height. He had a brain capacity similar to ours.

The Old Stone Age. With the help of geologists (who study the formation of the earth and the layers of rock and soil), anthropologists (who study how early man lived and looked), and archaeologists (who examine fossils and tools), we have learned a great deal about what these primitive people contributed to our civilization.

During the Old Stone (Paleolithic—pa-lee-o-lith'-ic) Age, which lasted from the earliest man down to about 10,000 years ago, people learned how to make simple weapons and crude tools out of bone,

OLD AND NEW STONE AGE TOOLS. The tools and weapons of the Old Stone Age were roughly hocked out of stone. When man had mastered the art of polishing, he began to fashion jars to hold his food and water.



the horns of animals and by chipping stones. They used wooden clubs, spears and harpoons to hunt for food and fight their enemies. They made fires and cooked food, and made rough clothes from animal skins.

They lived by hunting, fishing and the gathering of wild berries, fruits and nuts. To protect themselves against changes in weather and from animals, they lived in caves. Sometimes they decorated the walls of their caves with paintings.

The New Stone Age. About 10,000 years ago man made some very important advances. People of this (the Neolithic—nee-oh-lith'-ick) period, learned how to make better weapons and tools by grinding and polishing them. They learned how to tame animals and raise food—cereals, fruits and vegetables.

These discoveries led to great changes in man's way of life. He no longer was a wanderer, a nomad. He now settled down to cultivate his barley, wheat, olives and grapes. Since he was now more certain of his food supply, population increased. His comforts increased, too, as he learned to make pottery and weave cloth. He invented the wheel, so important in many different ways. He began to feel a need for laws and government.

The Age of Metals. Stone as a weapon and as a tool limited man in his efforts to control his environment (the world about him). Primitive man made another great step forward when he learned how to use metals.

About 6000 years ago, men living in southern Europe and Asia

began to make weapons and tools out of copper. By adding a little tin, an alloy, bronze, was formed. Bronze is much harder than copper and can be shaped easily to make many things. By 3500 B.C. people in the Near East had entered the Age of Bronze. Their discovery became known to the peoples of Europe, and the Stone Age came to an end.

For 2000 years, bronze was the most important metal known to man. Then, around 1500 B.C., he discovered how to use iron—a stronger, more lasting metal. It was probably developed by the Hittite peoples living in the Near East. This knowledge, too, gradually spread to other parts of the world and until very recently iron remained man's most important metal. Steel, an improved type of iron, has replaced iron as man's most useful metal.

TIME CHART OF THE EARTH AND ITS PEOPLE

<i>Periods of History</i>	<i>Duration</i>
Prehistoric times	1,000,000 B.C. to 5000 B.C.
Ancient history	5,000 B.C. to 500 A.D.
Medieval history	500 A.D. to 1500 A.D.
Modern history	1500 A.D. to the present
<i>Prehistoric Man</i>	<i>When He Appeared</i>
Java and Peking Men	1,000,000 years ago
Neanderthal Man	50,000 to 100,000 years ago
Cro-Magnon Man	20,000 years ago
<i>World's Ages</i>	<i>Period</i>
Paleolithic (Old Stone)	50,000-100,000 to 10,000 years ago
Neolithic (New Stone)	10,000 years ago
Metals	6,000 years ago to the present



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

- Prehistoric man had (a) a written language, (b) domesticated animals, (c) coined money, (d) irrigation projects. 1. _____
- The grindstone was developed during the (a) Paleolithic Age, (b) Neolithic Age, (c) Age of Bronze, (d) Age of Iron. 2. _____
- Knowledge of human life before written history is derived from (a) inscriptions on tombs, (b) discovery of remains of primitive men and objects, (c) study of coins, (d) deciphering of picture writing. 3. _____
- Nomads were (a) wanderers, (b) farmers, (c) merchants, (d) kings of Persia. 4. _____

- 5 Early Stone Age men did *not* have (a) fist hatchets, (b) fire, (c) a system of alphabet writing, (d) pottery. 5.
6. When we use the word "environment" we refer to (a) temper, (b) sentimental feelings, (c) the world around us, (d) the entire universe. 6.
7. Prehistoric man made his weapons and tools out of (a) iron, (b) bronze, (c) copper, (d) stone. 7.
8. An archaeologist is a person who (a) specializes in fossils, (b) studies coins, (c) builds bridges, (d) paints portraits. 8.
- 9 We study history because (a) it helps us to understand how human beings have progressed, (b) we can appreciate our debt to the ancient civilizations, (c) it promotes better understanding among the peoples of the world, (d) all of these. 9.
- 10 Of the four Ice Ages, the last one occurred about (a) 1,000,000, (b) 50,000, (c) 15,000, (d) 5,000 years ago. 10.



TRUE-FALSE TEST

Write *T* in the space provided at the left if the statement is correct; *F* if the statement is not correct.

1. Prehistoric man had only tools of stone.
2. Men were able to write long before the alphabet was invented.
3. The Old Stone Age was shorter than the New Stone Age.
4. The study of history has nothing to do with the future.
5. Cro-Magnon man was an example of early Neanderthal man.
6. The first metal used by man was bronze.
7. Geologists study how people looked and lived.
8. Through an examination of fossils and tools, the archaeologists have contributed much to human knowledge.
9. The wheel was probably invented in the Age of Metals.
10. The prehistoric ages were developed at the same time in all parts of the world.

ESSAY QUESTIONS

- 1 What factors brought about the transition from the Old Stone Age to the New Stone Age?
2. What three contributions of prehistoric man to civilization do you consider the most important? Why?
3. Explain these terms: (a) Anno Domini, (b) archaeologist, (c) environment, (d) nomad, (e) geologist.
4. Refer to a good reference book and write a description of the probable manner of life during the Old Stone Age and the New Stone Age



The Civilizations of The Middle East

1. Egyptian Civilization — Its History

How the Nile River Influenced Civilization. It was in the valley of the Nile River in northeastern Africa that man emerged from a primitive state and created one of the earliest of world civilizations.

It was not an accident that a civilization started here. There were only a few regions in the world where natural conditions made it possible for men to become farmers and settle down into community living. The mountains and vast forests were suitable only for hunting; there were no tools good enough for clearing the land in those days. The dry grasslands were good for pasture, and the herdsmen roved them for centuries. But since they were nomads, always moving on in search of better pasture, the herdsmen created no permanent settlements which could become centers of civilization.

Only the river valleys had fertile soil not covered by forests—thus, the four earliest centers of civilization arose in four valleys—those of the Tigris and Euphrates in Southwest Asia, the Indus in the Himalayas, the Yellow River in China and the Nile in Egypt.



CRADLES OF CIVILIZATION. Along the banks of the world's great rivers — the Nile, Euphrates, Tigris, Indus, Ganges, Yellow and Yangtze — civilizations developed. It was along the banks of these rivers that great cities were built.

"Egypt is the gift of the Nile," said an ancient Greek historian. Every year, from the months of May to October, the Nile River overflows its banks for a distance of ten miles on each side. As it recedes, it leaves behind a thin layer of very rich topsoil. The soil is so rich that the inhabitants are able to reap three crops a year. This soil fertility made it possible for hunters and herdsmen to settle down as farmers.

Other reasons for the growth of settled communities along the banks of the Nile were: (1) the warm climate, (2) the natural frontiers protecting the country (the Mediterranean Sea on the north, the desert on the west, cataracts—swiftly flowing waterfalls—to the south and the Red Sea on the east), and (3) the nearness of metals such as copper, and building materials such as stone.

The yearly overflowing of the Nile created problems in the building and tending of dikes and canals. As the villages developed and grew, it was seen that these jobs required cooperation.

Two Egyptian Kingdoms Unite. Gradually these villages and towns were united by rulers until two large kingdoms were created—Lower Egypt, around the mouth of the Nile River, and Upper Egypt, stretching southward beyond the First Cataract. Around 3400 B.C. these two were united by a leader called Menes (mee'-nes)—probably the first of the pharaohs (fay'-roh-z), kings of Egypt.

For the next 3000 years, Egypt was one of the great nations of the world. During that period it made many advances in culture and civilization. At one time Egypt ruled an empire (many lands controlled by one country), that stretched into Asia and covered a large area.

How Egypt Was Governed. Under the rule of the pharaoh (meaning "Great House or Palace"), Egypt was an absolute monarchy. This means that the pharaoh had all the powers. He collected taxes (generally in the form of grain, cattle or articles of trade), and spent the money as he pleased. He waged war, made all the laws, controlled justice, built canals and roads and was also the religious leader. He did all these things because, as the religious leader, all people *had* to obey him.

The pharaoh selected lesser officials and clerks to help him. He was assisted also by the nobles whom he appointed to act as governors of provinces, generals in the army and judges in the courts. Priests, who were very influential, were in charge of the religious ceremonies.

The great mass of people had no rights at all. They had no voice in the government, in the making of laws, the voting of taxes, or the spending of money. They could be drafted into the army, or made to work on the many public works that were always being built. They had no freedom of speech or religion, or any of the

other civil liberties (the rights of citizens) we take for granted today.

From its unification by Menes around 3400 B.C. to its conquest by Persia in 525 B.C., Egypt was governed by thirty dynasties — thirty sets of rulers of thirty different families. The most important periods were: the Old Kingdom, lasting approximately from 3000 to 2400 B.C., the Middle Kingdom (2400 B.C. to 1800 B.C.), and the Empire (1600 to 1100 B.C.).

The Old Kingdom. The first of these periods, also known as the Pyramid Age, saw the growth of the power, wealth and influence of the pharaohs. It was in this period that the pyramids were built—including the Great Pyramid of Cheops (about 2700 B.C.). This pyramid was built of 2,500,000 blocks of stone weighing two tons each. It took 100,000 people twenty years to build this tomb for Cheops (kee'-ops). It is solid stone except for the pharaoh's chambers and his possessions.

The Middle Kingdom. Gradually, the power of the pharaohs declined. Civil war broke out as several powerful nobles claimed the throne. Finally, around 2100 B.C., the Prince of Thebes established himself as the ruler and Egypt entered a period of peace and power again.

Under successive kings, large irrigation and land reclamation projects were begun. A canal was cut between the Red and the Mediterranean seas (similar to the modern Suez Canal). This permitted trade to be carried on with countries in the Near East. Commerce flourished and the frontiers of Egypt were pushed southward into Nubia (present-day Ethiopia).

The Hyksos Conquer Egypt. Around 1800 B.C., Asian peoples, called the Hyksos (hik'-sohs); conquered Egypt which had been weakened by revolts. The invaders used horses and war chariots, until then unknown to the Egyptians. The Hyksos ruled for about 200 years.

The Age of the Empire. In 1580 B.C. Egypt expelled the Hyksos, and reached the height of its influence under the pharaohs of the 18th, 19th and 20th dynasties. These rulers carved out an empire in southwest Asia that included Palestine, Phoenicia (fe-neesh'-i-a) and Syria.

Thutmose I in the 16th Century B.C., Thutmose III in the 15th Century and Rameses II in the 13th Century were the outstanding pharaohs of this period. In this period, too, reigned one of the great woman rulers of history—Hatshepsut (1520-1480 B.C.), daughter of Thutmose I.

Under these and other rulers, diplomatic relations and trade were carried on with the Hittites, the Babylonians and the peoples of the Greek islands in the Aegean Sea. The wealth and power of the

pharaohs increased greatly. They built many great stone temples and statues, such as those at Karnak. Recently, at Karnak, the huge Temple of Amon and a large row of stone sphinxes and animals were uncovered.

The Empire Falls. After the rule of Rameses II (ram'-e-seez), the Empire of Egypt declined in power. Succeeding pharaohs could not fight off neighboring countries, and were too weak to deal with dissatisfied groups at home. In 670 B.C. the Assyrians conquered Egypt and in 525 B.C. Persia made Egypt a part of its empire. Two hundred years later Alexander the Great of Greece conquered the Persian Empire, including Egypt.

THE NILE VALLEY. The fertile soil along the Nile River attracted the prehistoric people of northern Africa. Here they settled and founded the earliest civilization known to man. Without the Nile River, all of Egypt would have been hot, unproductive desert land. The Nile Delta forms a triangle in which is deposited rich soil — it is here that one of the world's earliest civilizations was born and flourished.



After Alexander's death, Ptolemy (tol'-e-mi), one of Alexander's generals, became ruler of Egypt. He established a dynasty that governed the country until it was conquered by the Romans in 27 B.C. Cleopatra (klee-o-pat'-rah) was the last of the Ptolemaic rulers. Not until the 1930s did Egypt finally regain its independence. During these two thousand years Egypt was ruled by the Romans, Moslems and English.

2. Egyptian Social and Economic Life

The Egyptian Social Scale. When men were hunters they had little wealth except their clothes and their weapons. There was no surplus.

All took part in the hunt to make sure there would be enough to eat, and all were on the same social level.

But the fertile valley of the Nile produced so much—wheat, vegetables, fruit—that the farmer's family could exist even though strong chieftains took away part of his crops. The chieftains became nobles and, for the first time, men were divided into social classes. The farmers were reduced to near slavery because they were dependent upon the nobles. The nobles ruled through force; they controlled the irrigation system, with its dikes and canals, and acted as judges and priests as well.

After one of the nobles rose to pharaoh and united the country, the nobles and priests continued to enjoy wealth and power. The priests advised the pharaoh, helped him govern and controlled religion. The nobles' large, comfortable homes, made of sun-dried brick or stone, were surrounded by gardens and furnished with rugs, couches and beautifully carved furniture. They ate a variety of foods including meats, cheese, figs, melons, grapes, dates, and drank milk and wine. Their clothes were made of richly embroidered linens.

Below them on the social scale were the traders and businessmen who lived in the cities and enjoyed some of the comforts of the upper classes.

At the bottom was the great mass of the people, divided into three groups: (1) the peasants (farmers), (2) the city workers, (3) the slaves. The peasants led lives of toil and misery. They remained very poor because the tax collector took most of their crops.

Their huts, made of dried mud with thatched roofs, contained little furniture. Their clothing and food were simple and poor. Generally, they died young.

City workers were not much better off. They lived in small homes and cooked their scanty meals in community outdoor ovens. Most miserable of all were the slaves who worked on the land of the pharaohs and nobles. They were drawn from prisoners of war, debtors and criminals.

Egyptian Industry Grows. Because crops were large, not everyone had to work at farming. As a result, skilled specialists developed in other fields. This is called the *division of labor*. In Egypt, these craftsmen produced—among other things—linens, pottery, glassware, jewelry, leather work, wood carvings and metal ornaments.

However, not everything the pharaohs wanted could be produced in Egypt. Thus, trade with neighboring countries developed. Egyptian wheat and linen were exchanged for gold and ivory from other parts of Africa, copper from the Greek Aegean (ee-jee'-an) islands, horses and wood from Babylonia, dyes from Phoenicia and tapestries from Syria. Taxes on this trade fattened the pharaoh's treasury.

3. Egyptian Culture

Egyptian Religious Beliefs. Early peoples understood very little about the world around them. They thought natural events like floods were caused by angry gods or spirits. They believed these gods or spirits were people who dwelt in trees, rivers and the sky. The most important Egyptian gods were Osiris, god of the Nile and of fertility; Isis, his wife, and Amon-Ra, the Sun God. Calling themselves the earth representatives of these gods, the pharaohs increased their power over the people.

The Egyptians believed in life after death and immortality of the soul. When a rich Egyptian died his body was embalmed and



THE TOMB OF TUTANKHAMEN. The tomb of this Egyptian pharaoh, who died more than 3000 years ago, was uncovered in 1922. He was one of the last pharaohs of the 18th dynasty. His tomb was discovered in the Valley of the Kings in Luxor. His face was covered with a mask of gold and many of his personal belongings, even food, were buried with him.

wrapped in white linen strips to keep it intact. In the coffin were placed food and objects which were part of his life—his tools, his weapons, his personal belongings. It was believed that he would need them in his after-life.

Into the coffin was also put a copy of the Egyptian sacred *Book of the Dead*. This contained the charms and prayers that the soul recited on its way to be judged by the god Osiris. Some of these prayers, called the "negative confessions," are similar to the Ten Commandments, except that they are put in the negative: "I did not cheat," "I did not murder," "I did not steal." At the judgment seat the soul was weighed against a feather, the Egyptian symbol for truth. Only those who could pass this test were admitted to Heaven.

The pyramids were built because the pharaohs hoped to live after death as gods. Around the walls of the inside rooms were inscribed the chief events of the pharaoh's reign. In 1923 a pharaoh's tomb was discovered by American and British archaeologists; that of

Tutankhamen (toot-angk-ah'-men). The discovery of his treasures and possessions enriched our knowledge of Egyptian life in the 14th Century B.C.

Meanwhile, archaeology continues to advance our understanding of the Egyptians. In 1955 the "solar ships" that Cheops built to rise to Heaven were discovered. These wooden ships are the first examples we have of this important aspect of Egyptian religion.

Although the Egyptians were *polytheistic*—that is, they worshiped many gods—one of the pharaohs tried to establish a new *monotheistic* (one god) religion. Ikhnaton (i-ke-nah'-t'n), who lived around 1360 B.C., tried to establish the Sun God as the only god. After his death, however, the old religion was restored.

Writing Is Developed. The invention of writing meant a tremendous leap forward for civilization. Only a few peoples ever developed a system of writing: the Egyptians, Sumerians and Chinese. All other peoples borrowed from them.

Our own alphabet can be traced back to the Egyptian hieroglyphics (hy-er-o-glif'-iks). This began as a picture writing, with each character representing an object—like a tree. Then some characters came to represent the sound in the word, like the consonants *t* and *r*. Though in this manner the Egyptians invented a 24-letter alphabet, they never stopped using the pictures of the objects along with the characters for the consonants. A thousand years later the Semites (According to the Bible these peoples are descended from Shem, son of Noah. Hebrews and Arabs are some of the Semitic peoples.) took over the Egyptian characters for sounds, and dropped the little object-pictures. It was the Greeks who added letters for vowels, when—about 800 B.C.—they learned about writing from Phoenician merchants. And, through the Romans, the Greek alphabet has come to us.

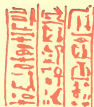
During the Napoleonic invasion of Egypt in 1799, French soldiers discovered a large black stone with inscriptions in three different languages in the Rosetta mouth of the Nile River. The Rosetta Stone, as it is called, proved to be the key to modern understanding of the ancient hieroglyphics. Jean Champollion (shahm-po-lyahn'), a French scholar, was able to discover the meanings of these inscriptions by comparing the three scripts used: hieroglyphic, demotic—a simplified form—and Greek. It meant a great increase in our understanding of life in ancient Egypt.

For paper the Egyptians used the papyrus reed which grew along the Nile. These hollow reeds were cut open, dried and pasted together to form scrolls. From *papyrus*, in fact, comes our word *paper*. For ink the Egyptians used water, vegetable gum and dye, mixed together. They sharpened a reed, dipped it into the ink and wrote.

The Egyptians Invent a Calendar. The Egyptians were also among the first to develop a calendar. Their earliest attempt was a lunar calendar, based on the moon's 29½-day cycle. But, because this was too inaccurate, the annual rising of Sirius, or Dog Star, became the basis of the calendar. A 12-month year, each month consisting of 30 days, was devised and a feast period of five days was added to round out a 365-day year. This is similar to the calendar that we use today, with the addition of an extra day every fourth (leap) year

EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION

Date	Place	Rulers	Contributions
3400-27 B.C.	Nile Valley, parts of Asiatic Mediterranean coast	Menes (3400 B.C.) Cheops (2700 B.C.) Thutmose III (15th Century B.C.) Rameses II (13th Century B.C.) Hatshepsut—woman ruler (15th Century B.C.) Amenhotep IV (14th Century B.C.) Tutankhamen (14th Century B.C.)	<p>Religion: Polytheism—Ra, Isis, Osiris. Belief in after life. "Book of the Dead." "Negative Confessions." Efforts to adapt monotheism by Amenhotep IV (Ikhnatan) fail.</p> <p>Writing: Hieroglyphics, scrolls, pen, ink. Rosetta Stone.</p> <p>Calendar: Solar calendar of 365 days.</p> <p>Architecture: Pyramids, obelisks, temples.</p> <p>Math and Engineering: Surveying and irrigation; geometry; construction of great projects.</p> <p>Medicine: Embalming. Knowledge of drugs—operations.</p> <p>Commerce: Great trade by which its ideas and culture spread throughout the ancient world.</p>



Egyptian Architecture Still Stands. Pyramids, temples, and statues of pharaohs and animals are indications of the Egyptians' skill in art and architecture. They planned these to last forever. Huge, massive columns supported the roofs of their temples. The walls

and columns were decorated with artistic, lifelike pictures. The Great Pyramid at Gizeh still stands today—5000 years after it was built!

Achievements in Other Fields. The Egyptians made much progress in engineering and mathematics. For their irrigation works and the erection of the pyramids, these skills were necessary. Reestablishing boundaries each time the Nile receded called for a knowledge of surveying and measuring. Thus was born the mathematical science of geometry. They were also skilled in ship building, road building, making pottery and clothing.

Many advances were made in the field of medicine. Doctors prescribed drugs and performed operations. Even dentistry was practiced by the Egyptians; we have discovered mummies with gold-filled teeth. Nevertheless, the people had little understanding of cause-and-effect (the idea of illness as a natural result of something in the surroundings, such as germs). They used charms and amulets to ward off evil spirits which they believed caused illness and bad luck.

Egyptian schools were conducted by priests and were attended by the sons of noblemen (girls, it seems, received no education). From these schools came the professional scribe, or copier of manuscripts, who hoped some day to become a priest.

Egyptian contributions to civilization have thus been felt in many fields. Through its trade and commerce with other countries, Egypt's culture was spread to other parts of the world and entered into the stream of world history.

4. *Mesopotamian Civilization*

What Is the Fertile Crescent? Through the country known today as Iraq two great rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, flow south-eastward to the Persian Gulf. The fertile valleys of these rivers form the eastern part of what is usually called the Fertile Crescent. This is a curving area that stretches northward through Syria and Palestine to the borders of Egypt. The southern half has been called Mesopotamia, meaning "land between rivers." It is believed that here is the real cradle of western civilization.

Geography Helps Create a Civilization. The mild climate, fertile soil and navigable rivers of this region helped the people to develop a civilization. Unlike Egypt, however, Mesopotamia did not have natural barriers. Situated on a great plain, the land offered little natural resistance to invaders. Therefore, one people after another—Sumerians, Akkadians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Chaldeans and Persians—conquered it.

The Sumerians—First Settlers. The first conquerors of Lower Mesopotamia were the Sumerians (soo-meer'-i-ans). These were an Indo-European people who moved southwest from their original home near the Black and Caspian seas. They found the land covered with marshes, due to the overflowing of the two rivers. The Sumerians drained the marshes, dug ditches and built canals to irrigate their farms.

Later, large, well-organized communities, each of them independent of the others, were developed by the Sumerians. At the center of each of these communities was a small city or town. This was the *city-state* type of government that was later copied by the Greeks and Romans. The city-state was a city plus the surrounding region that was not subject to any higher state. One of the earliest of these was Ur. The largest was Sumer, near the Persian Gulf.

For a thousand years, from 4000-3000 B.C., the Sumerians built a great culture. They developed a system of writing, called *cuneiform*, which consisted of short, wedge-shaped strokes made on a clay tablet with a three-pointed reed stylus (or engraver-type pen). These tablets were then baked and hardened. We have discovered thousands of such tablets containing information about the life and customs of the people.



EARLY SCULPTURE. On the left is a part of the stone on which the Code of Hammurabi is carved. This drawing shows Hammurabi receiving the Code of Laws from the Sun God. The winged bull with a human head (right) was carved from a huge block of stone. These figures usually guarded the entrances of Assyrian palaces.

The key to the cuneiform language was discovered by Sir Henry Rawlinson. A huge rock cliff at Behistun in Persia, covered with inscriptions in several languages, enabled Rawlinson to master the language in 1846. About 1900, discoveries of many tablets gave full information about the Sumerians.

The Sumerians were traders. Many of the clay tablets we have found are business contracts, bills of sale and accounts of orders for goods. Since stone was not easily available the chief building mate-

rial was brick, baked of mud and often glazed. With this, temples and other buildings were built.

The Sumerians were the first to develop the arch. Their temple-towers, called ziggurats, often reached six or seven stories in height. The floors were set back upon each other and were connected by stairways of a hundred steps.

In mathematics and engineering, these people made important contributions. Sixty was their unit of counting: an hour was divided into 60 minutes, a minute into 60 seconds, a circle into 360 degrees—just as they are today. They drew up elaborate mathematical tables for use in measuring land or in building temples or canals. They improved the wheel and built chariots and carts for transportation.

The Sumerians were polytheistic; that is, they worshiped many gods. Their chief god was Marduk. Sumerian literature developed a number of great epic narrative poems. Some of these deal with a legendary hero named Gilgamesh. They relate the story of the creation of the world, and even of a great flood.

The Akkadians. About 2800 B. C. the independent city-states of Sumer were conquered by the Akkadians (a-kay'-di-ans) under King Sargon. They then united the city-states and made Ur the capital of their empire. The Akkadians kept the culture of the Sumerians and issued a law code (a list of the laws they followed).

The Babylonians March. About 2000 B. C. the city-state of Babylon became the leading city of Mesopotamia. The Babylonians (bab-i-lo'-ni-ans) conquered the neighboring Akkadians and Sumerians and built up a large empire. The greatest of the Babylonian kings was Hammurabi (ham-oo-rah'-bee). It was during his reign that for the first time a law code—the Code of Hammurabi—was written down (on stone).

Hammurabi's laws are known for: (1) their *harshness* ("an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth"); (2) their *favoring of nobles*—crimes against nobles were punished more severely than those against the lower classes, and punishment for crimes by nobles was less strict; (3) their *regard for women's rights*—women could engage in business and could own property; (4) their *recognition of property rights*.

Shortly after Hammurabi's death (about 1750 B. C.) the Babylonians were conquered by the Kassites, who came from the mountains to the northwest. For 600 years the Kassites ruled Babylonia.

The Assyrians Take Over. About 1200 B. C. the Assyrians (a-sir'-i-ans) conquered the region. For the next 600 years they built up a large empire that stretched from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. It also included, for a time, the kingdom of Egypt.

The Assyrians were the fiercest fighters of the ancient world

Their kings boasted of their cruelty and their armies were feared everywhere. They invented the battering ram and special siege machinery that destroyed the brick cities of Mesopotamia and Palestine.

The Assyrian kings were great builders who lived in fine palaces. The empire was divided into provinces and each province was ruled by a governor responsible to the king. The empire was united by good roads and a regular royal postal service. The one Assyrian



THE CHALDEAN EMPIRE. The Chaldeans controlled the shaded area for more than one hundred years. Finally, they were conquered by the Medes and then by Cyrus, King of the Persians.

king who seemed to favor peace was Assurbanipal, who collected a great library at his palace in Nineveh. About 22,000 of these tablets, found in the ruins of the library, give us a wonderful picture of life in this period.

The Chaldeans Build a Second Babylonian Empire. Aided by the Medes, a tribe from the Persian hills, the Chaldeans (kal-dee'-ans) of southern Mesopotamia destroyed the city of Nineveh in 612 B. C. Thus, the Assyrian empire came to an end. King Nebuchadnezzar (neb-u-kad-nez'-er) reestablished Babylon as his capital, rebuilt it and made it into a great city. For his Persian wife he built terraced gardens on the roof of his palace. These were the Hanging Gardens, one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world.

Nebuchadnezzar's empire was not as large as that of the Assyrians. However, he did capture the kingdom of Judah in Palestine, destroyed Jerusalem and forced its leaders to live in Babylon.

The Chaldeans made important discoveries in astronomy, which grew out of their interest in astrology. They believed that the future could be read by studying the stars. Astrologers charted the heavens, predicted eclipses, divided the week into seven days and the day into twelve double hours. They measured the passage of time by sundials and water clocks. By casting the horoscopes of individuals, they claimed to be able to foretell the life history of people. Astrol-

ogy spread throughout the ancient world, was practiced in Mohammedan countries, believed in by the Romans and is still practiced.

Babylon became the center of a great trading and commercial empire. Merchants sold goods from different parts of the ancient world in the street markets of the city. However, in 539 B. C., shortly after the death of Nebuchadnezzar, the Chaldean Empire was conquered by the Persians.

The Persians Are Victorious. This Indo-European people came from the area around the Caspian and Black seas. Under their leader, Cyrus, all the Persian tribes—including the Medes—were united into one nation around 550 B.C. Cyrus defeated the Chaldeans, an event described in the Book of David in the Old Testament. He then conquered the Lydian Empire, on the site of modern Turkey.

Cambyses (cam-by'-seez), the son of Cyrus, added Egypt to the empire in 525 B.C. Under the rule of Darius the Great (521-485 B.C.) the Persian Empire included about 2,500,000 square miles and 40,000,000 people. It stretched from India to Greece. To govern

EARLY CIVILIZATIONS OF THE MIDDLE EAST

Civilization	Place	Rulers and Religion	Contributions
Sumerians— 4000- 3000 B.C.	Lower Mesopotamia	God Marduk	Cuneiform writing, arch, brick build- ings, 60-minute hour, 360° circle
Akkadians— 2800 B.C.	Lower Mesopotamia	Sargon	First law code
Babylonians— 2000- 1750 B.C.	Lower Mesopotamia	Hammurabi	First written law code
Assyrians— 1200-600 B.C.	All of Mesopotamia and Egypt	Assurbanipal	Battering ram, li- brary at Nineveh
Chaldeans— 612-539 B.C.	Fertile Crescent	Nebuchadnezzar	Hanging Gardens, astronomy, 7-day week, 24-hour day, sundials
Persians— 539-331 B.C.	India to Greece, Egypt and North Africa	Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius, Xerxes Religion: Zoroas- trianism God: Ahura Mazda Book: Zend-Avesta	First great empire; fine system of roads Zoroastrianism— god of goodness and god of evil

this empire, Darius organized it into 20 provinces, called satrapies. At the head of each he appointed a satrap, or governor. To check on them he sent out officers known as "the king's eyes and ears."

Darius built many roads to unite his empire; the longest one stretched from Susa, his capital, to Sardis—1500 miles. Over this road traveled the king's troops, always ready to put down rebellion. The king's messengers carried important mail and could cover the distance in a week by changing horses at relay stations. Merchants, too, used these roads to move their goods. (See map, page 38.)

The Persian kings treated their conquered peoples well. The Jews were released from bondage in Babylonia (see page 26) and allowed to return to Jerusalem. The rights of all peoples were respected.

The Persians adopted the civilization of the people they ruled and made some changes. They built their palaces with stone rather than with brick. They simplified the cuneiform script to 39 symbols. This led to the decline and gradual disappearance of the Babylonian cuneiform.

The religion of the Persians was Zoroastrianism, named after its teacher, Zoroaster (zo-ro-as'-ter), who lived in the 6th Century B.C. This religion taught that there was one supreme god, Ahura Mazda, the god of light and truth. Opposed to him was the god of darkness and falsehood, Ahriman. It was man's duty to aid the god of light in his struggle with the god of darkness. The teachings of this religion, which still exists in some parts of Persia and India, were collected in a book called the *Zend-Avesta*.

For 200 years the Persian Empire was the largest and strongest in the ancient world. The downfall of this empire was brought about by the Greeks, who earlier had defeated first Darius (490 B.C.) and then his son, Xerxes (zerk'-seez) (479 B.C.). (See the Persian Wars, page 37.) Alexander the Great dealt the final blow in 331 B.C.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST 1

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. The pharaohs held unlimited power because (a) they did not ask very much from their subjects, (b) the people believed the pharaohs were descended from the gods, (c) the people knew the pharaohs would use their power for the welfare of Egypt, (d) their subjects thought they were wise rulers. 1. _____
2. Egypt was the home of an early civilization because the (a) pyramids attracted visitors, (b) Nile River made farming easy, (c) people were unusually ambitious, (d) kings encouraged great men to develop their abilities. 2. _____

3. Cheops was (a) an Egyptian god, (b) a Persian poet, (c) a Babylonian law giver, (d) the builder of the Great Pyramid. 3. _____
4. Civilization developed first in the Nile Valley for all of the following reasons *except* (a) warm climate, (b) supply of water, (c) protection by desert, (d) abundant rainfall. 4. _____
5. Which of the following is *not* associated with ancient Egypt? (a) Rosetta Stone, (b) solar calendar, (c) cuneiform, (d) pyramids. 5. _____
6. The chief religious work of the Egyptians was the (a) *Old Testament*, (b) *Book of the Dead*, (c) *Zend-Avesta*, (d) *New Testament*. 6. _____
7. Egyptian writing material was (a) papyrus, (b) parchment, (c) paper, (d) linen. 7. _____
8. A primary source of information on a phase of Egyptian life would be (a) a world history textbook, (b) the novel *The Egyptian*, (c) the motion picture *Antony and Cleopatra*, (d) a papyrus roll used by the Egyptians. 8. _____
9. Egyptians developed a calendar in order to predict (a) the beginning of the new year, (b) the annual overflow of the Nile, (c) the anniversary of the pharaoh's birth, (d) the celebration of the unification of Egypt. 9. _____
10. The Egyptian ruler who united Upper and Lower Egypt was (a) Cheops, (b) Menes, (c) Thutmose, (d) Hatshepsut. 10. _____
11. Most of the pyramids are located at the city of (a) Gizeh, (b) Cairo, (c) Alexandria, (d) Thebes. 11. _____
12. Egyptian writing was known as (a) phonetics, (b) cuneiform, (c) hieroglyphics, (d) sanskrit. 12. _____
13. The Egyptians built the pyramids as (a) great monuments to the glory of the nation, (b) tombs for their kings, (c) landmarks for travelers, (d) fortresses. 13. _____
14. The peasants and slaves in ancient Egypt occupied a position (a) at the top of the social ladder, (b) at the bottom of the social ladder, (c) in the middle of the social ladder, (d) of democratic equality. 14. _____
15. The worship of many gods is called (a) monetheism, (b) polytheism, (c) atheism, (d) iconoclasm. 15. _____
16. The period in which the pyramids were built was called the (a) Age of the Empire, (b) Old Kingdom, (c) Middle Kingdom, (d) Age of the Pharaohs. 16. _____
17. All of the following were great Egyptian pharaohs *except* (a) Thutmose I, (b) Thutmose III, (c) Rameses II, (d) Amon-Ra. 17. _____
18. Egypt was conquered by all of the following countries *except* (a) Persia, (b) Palestine, (c) Assyria, (d) Rome. 18. _____
19. All of the following existed in ancient Egypt *except* (a) coined money, (b) irrigation projects, (c) manufacture of pottery and glassware, (d) foreign trade. 19. _____
20. According to the Egyptian religion, a solar ship (a) carried the pharaohs up the Nile, (b) was used by the High Priest only, (c) was the symbol of the Sun God, (d) enabled the pharaohs to ascend to Heaven. 20. _____

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST 2

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. The Fertile Crescent refers to the (a) Nile River region, (b) Tigris-Euphrates valley, (c) eastern Mediterranean coast, (d) Aegean area. 1. _____
2. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers flow into the (a) Persian Gulf, (b) Mediterranean Sea, (c) Red Sea, (d) Indian Ocean. 2. _____
3. Which was not a god? (a) Amon-Ra, (b) Mazda, (c) Darius, (d) Marduk. 3. _____
4. Saying that cuneiform writing was deciphered means that it was (a) copied, (b) translated, (c) discovered, (d) improved. 4. _____
5. All of the empires that rose in the Fertile Crescent were (a) democracies, (b) republics, (c) limited monarchies, (d) absolute monarchies. 5. _____
6. In most of the Mesopotamian civilizations a position of dominance was held by the (a) artisans, (b) merchants, (c) priests, (d) small farmers. 6. _____
7. The chief building material used in the construction of temples and palaces by the Sumerians was (a) concrete, (b) stone, (c) brick, (d) wood. 7. _____
8. The Persians are remembered chiefly for their (a) great empire, (b) harshness, (c) mathematics, (d) art. 8. _____
9. The Persian Empire grew to its greatest extent under (a) Cambyses, (b) Darius, (c) Xerxes, (d) Cyrus. 9. _____
10. Astronomy was developed by the Chaldeans because they believed that (a) the stars foretold their future, (b) the sun was the center of the universe, (c) the moon was a goddess, (d) the planets held many important secrets. 10. _____

MATCHING TEST 1

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

- I
- _____ 1. Hyksos
 - _____ 2. Amon-Ra
 - _____ 3. Champollion
 - _____ 4. "Negative Confessions"
 - _____ 5. Ikhnaton
 - _____ 6. Nile Delta
 - _____ 7. Menes
 - _____ 8. dynasty
 - _____ 9. Hatshepsut
 - _____ 10. Cheops



- II
- a. a family of kings
 - b. advocate of monotheism
 - c. great woman ruler of Egypt
 - d. the Sphinx
 - e. Egyptian Sun God
 - f. introduced the horse into Egypt
 - g. the Great Pyramid
 - h. forerunner of the Ten Commandments
 - i. fertile land around the mouth of the river
 - j. deciphered the Rosetta Stone
 - k. legendary founder of a united Egypt

MATCHING TEST 2

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I

II

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Hanging Gardens | a. imperial government |
| 2. Hammurabi | b. ancient library |
| 3. deciphering of cuneiform | c. Chaldeans |
| 4. the arch | d. Persian government |
| 5. Mazda | e. Assyrians |
| 6. 7-day week | f. Sumerian architecture |
| 7. 60-minute hour | g. Sumerians |
| 8. Nineveh | h. first written code of laws |
| 9. "The king's eyes and ears" | i. Nebuchadnezzar |
| 10. fierce warriors | j. Persian God of Light |
| | k. Behistun Rock |



COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. The division of the circle into 360°, and the day into 24 hours originated with the
2. Governors of Persian provinces were called
3. Champollion was to hieroglyphics what was to cuneiform.
4. Assurbanipal was a king of the noted for his library.
5. The Persian Empire was conquered by the
6. Egypt's government under the pharaohs was called
7. The past 2000 years the, the and the have ruled Egypt.
8. The Great Pyramid at Gizeh was built years ago.
9. built the Hanging Gardens for
10. The Hebrews and Arabs are peoples.



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. "Egypt is the gift of the Nile"
 - (a) Show how the Nile River made Egyptian civilization possible.
 - (b) List and discuss three ways in which Egyptian civilization differed from our present-day civilization.
 - (c) What are some of the historic highlights of Egyptian civilization?
2. Religion greatly affected the development of Egyptian civilization and culture. Prove this statement by discussing *four* examples.
3. Compare the influence of geography on Egypt and of the countries in the Fertile Crescent noting similarities and dissimilarities.
4. Describe one contribution to civilization made by each of the following peoples: (a) Chaldeans, (b) Persians, (c) Sumerians, (d) Babylonians.
5. Explain the origin of the meaning of the following phrases: (a) "born under a lucky star," (b) "an eye for an eye," (c) "Mazda bulb."



Civilizations of the Eastern Mediterranean

1. *The Hittites*

The Hittites Come Upon the Stage of History. Little was known about the Hittite civilization until this century. Discoveries of an ancient and unknown language and the uncovering of a large Hittite city in the early 20th Century gave us a much better understanding of these early people. But the Hittite language, a mixture of hieroglyphic and cuneiform inscriptions, is still only partially understood by us today.

The Hittites entered Asia Minor (present-day Turkey) about 3000 B.C., from northern Europe. By 1900 B.C. they had built up a large empire extending eastward from the Aegean Sea to the upper waters of the Euphrates River. A period of decline of several hundred years was followed by the establishment of a second Hittite Empire. Between 1500-1200 B.C. this empire ruled all of Asia Minor, including Palestine and Syria.

The Hittites' continual wars with Egypt weakened the empire. By 1200 B.C. it was conquered by barbarian peoples from the north. Later, the land was absorbed by the Assyrian kingdom.

What Did the Hittites Contribute? The Hittites are credited with the development of iron for weapons and tools. They got this metal from the mines of Armenia and Europe and for several centuries had a monopoly on it. Other metals, such as gold, silver and lead, were also mined. The Hittites carried on extensive trade in these metals with neighboring countries.

The government of the Hittites was under the sole rule of a king. Their cities were heavily fortified by walls and towers built of large stone blocks. Forbidding stone lions guarded the entrances to the palace. The extensive trading of the Hittites is shown by the large number of documents and clay tablets that have been found dealing with commercial and legal subjects.

There was a written code of laws in use which showed strong Babylonian influence. The art of the Hittites was fairly crude, consisting of carvings of animals and warriors. These were often done on the sides of cliffs.

The chief historical importance of the Hittites is that they served as a link between Mesopotamia and western Asia.

2. *The Lydians*

The Lydians Coin Money. For hundreds of years after the fall of the Hittites, Asia Minor was divided into a number of small states. During the 10th Century B.C., the western part of Asia Minor came under the control of the Lydians (lid'-i-ans), who may have migrated from Europe. For 400 years the Lydian kingdom enjoyed a prosperity based on (1) its mineral wealth, particularly gold and electrum (a mixture of gold and silver found in the river beds), and (2) its control of the trade routes of Asia Minor.

The coinage of money is the Lydians' most important contribution to civilization. Before their time, trade had been conducted



DEVELOPMENT OF A MONEY SYSTEM. Before money came into use, merchants traded articles for other articles. Then traders used silver pieces which were shaped like the articles themselves. Later, silver, bronze and gold coins were used. It is believed that the Lydians invented the coinage of money.

either by the exchange of goods or services as, for example, paying for food or work with grain, or by the use of lumps of gold or silver. These metals had to be weighed and tested every time goods were bought with them. The Lydians began to shape these lumps and stamp them with their value. These coins then became money in our modern sense of the word. This practice was adopted quickly by other countries using gold and silver. Thus, it helped to develop international trade.

The capital of the Lydian kingdom, Sardis, became an important trading center. The riches of its king were—for those days—fabulous. The last great king of the Lydians was Croesus (kree'-sus), whose name has come to mean wealth ("as rich as Croesus").

The kingdom ended with its conquest by the Persians in 547 B.C.

3. *The Arameans*

The Arameans Contribute a Common Language. The Arameans (ar-a-mee'-ans), a Semitic people, moved into Syria during the decline of the Hittite Empire. Here they established a number of small but prosperous kingdoms. The most important of these was

Damascus. For almost 300 years after 1000 B.C. Damascus traded with neighboring countries. In 732 B.C. it was captured by the Assyrians.

The Arameans are remembered chiefly because of their language. The Aramean alphabet was adopted by the new Babylonian Empire of the 7th Century B.C. The language, both spoken and written, became the common language of the Near East. Jesus Christ spoke Aramaic. Some of the later books of the Old Testament were written in Aramaic which, for a time, replaced Hebrew even in Palestine.

4. *The Phoenicians*

The Phoenicians Are Influenced by Geography. On the shores of the eastern Mediterranean, south of Asia Minor, was the long, narrow country called Phoenicia. Its people, hemmed in by the Lebanon Mountains to the east and living on poor soil, were drawn to the sea. They became the great sailors and traders of the ancient world. For several centuries after 1000 B.C. they sailed the Mediterranean and beyond. They traded cloth, pottery, glass and wood for the tin of Britain, the ivory, hides, ostrich feathers and slaves of Africa, and the spices, gold and precious stones of India.

Phoenicia was not a united country; it consisted of a number of independent cities. The most important of these were Sidon, Tyre, Byblos and Beirut.

From a shell fish (murex) the Phoenicians extracted a beautiful purplish dye. The woolens and cotton textiles dyed with it were prized by the royalty of the countries with which they traded. This is the origin of the phrase "born to the purple."

The Phoenicians were daring sailors. Without maps or any modern methods of figuring distance and direction, they sailed beyond the Pillars of Hercules (Gibraltar) into the Atlantic Ocean. It is said that they even circumnavigated the continent of Africa. They founded dozens of colonies, including Gades (now Cadiz) in Spain and Carthage (now Tunis) in North Africa.

The Phoenicians Contribute an Alphabet. The Phoenicians are known as the "carriers and missionaries of civilization." Coming into contact with the many centers of the Mediterranean world, they exchanged not only goods but also ideas among these different countries and peoples.

Their greatest contribution was an alphabet which was based on 22 symbols, or letters, representing sounds. This alphabet was adopted by the Greeks, who transmitted it with some changes to the Romans. From the Romans it has come down to us. (The word *alphabet* comes from the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, "alpha" and "beta.")

5. *The Hebrews*

A Wandering People. About 2000 B.C., some of the Semitic nomads of Mesopotamia, the Hebrews, sought greener pastures for their growing herds. The patriarch Abraham led some of his tribesmen of Ur to the shores of the Mediterranean.

About 600 years later a drought caused many of them to migrate to Egypt. At first they were welcomed there, but later they became slaves. It was Moses who led the Hebrews out of bondage. He gave up his high position under the pharaoh to guide them to Canaan.

The Canaanites, original inhabitants of the region now called Palestine, were conquered by the Hebrews under David, and driven northward. (Later on the Canaanites, mixing with other tribes, became the Phoenicians.) David also conquered the Philistines (from whose name "Palestine" is derived).

The early rulers of the Hebrews had been local judges or religious leaders. Saul united his people and became their first real king, ruling from 1020 to 1004 B.C. Saul's successor, David, extended the country's boundaries and created a strong, united government during his reign (1004-965 B.C.). David's son, Solomon (965-926 B.C.) built a great palace, as well as the famous Temple of Jerusalem. The heavy taxes levied by Solomon to carry on his building program led to much discontent. Ten northern tribes revolted during the reign of Solomon's successor, and set up the separate Kingdom of Israel. The southern part, Judah, remained loyal.

As separated states they could not withstand the pressure from stronger neighbors. Israel was conquered by the Assyrians in 721 B.C. Judah fell before the Babylonians (586 B.C.) under Nebuchadnezzar. The Hebrew leaders and many of their followers were forced to leave Jerusalem and live at Babylon. This Babylonian captivity ended when Cyrus, the Persian king, captured Babylon in 538 B.C. and permitted the Hebrews to return to Jerusalem.

The Temple was rebuilt and the Hebrews lived for 200 years under the kindly rule of the Persians. The fall of the Persian Empire to Alexander the Great (333-325 B.C.) brought Palestine under the control of the Greeks. The Maccabean revolt against the Greeks in 167-164 B.C. led to the establishment of an independent country that lasted for 100 years.

In 63 B.C. the Romans conquered the land and it was governed by kings under Roman protection until it became an imperial province in 6 A.D. A rebellion of the Jews in 66 A.D. was put down by the Emperor Titus. As punishment, the Jews were ordered scattered throughout the empire.

For centuries the hope of reestablishing a Hebrew state was kept alive in the hearts of the dispersed people. Finally, in 1948 this hope was realized with the creation of the state of Israel.

What Did the Hebrews Contribute to Civilization? Throughout history the Jews have been known as the "People of the Book." This book was the Old Testament—the history, legends, religious beliefs, laws and poetry of the Jews before the birth of Christ. It contains some passages of rare beauty, especially the Psalms of David and the Song of Solomon, and is regarded as one of the most important books written by men.

The most important contribution of the Hebrews to world civilization is the idea of monotheism (the worship of one God). This God, Jehovah, was regarded as just, righteous and omnipotent (all-powerful). This basic religious idea developed at a time when all the neighbors of the Hebrews were worshipping many gods (polytheism).

A high moral code is found in the Ten Commandments, which Moses received from God on Mount Sinai while he was leading the Hebrews to the "Promised Land." In the *Talmud*, another important book of the Jews, is found a digest of Jewish laws and opinions.

6. The Aegean Civilization

Discoveries of Archaeologists Schliemann and Evans. The islands of the eastern Mediterranean were the home of an ancient and rich civilization that was almost unknown to modern man until less than 100 years ago. Through the discoveries of Heinrich Schliemann (shlee'-mahn) and Sir Arthur Evans, the mystery of these people has, to a large extent, been cleared up.

Schliemann discovered the ancient city of Troy (Ilium) in the northwestern corner of Asia Minor. Homer had written about Troy in his *Iliad* (a Greek epic poem on the events of the last year of the Trojan War). Evans found that the island of Crete had been the center of an important civilization. This is known as the "Minoan civilization," named after a line of kings called Minos (my'-nos).

History of the Cretans. Between 3000 B.C. and 1400 B.C. Crete developed into an empire that included not only other Aegean islands but parts of the mainland of Asia and the Greek peninsula as well. Crete's important cities were Cnossus (noss'-us) and Phaestus (fees'-tus). The rich soil, excellent harbors, and gold, silver, copper and lead all contributed to Crete's power.

The Cretans, long before the Phoenicians, had become the leading seafaring and trading nation of this part of the world. They traded with the Egyptians and Syrians, exchanging pottery, textiles and metal goods. A strong navy protected their merchant marine and forced tribute from nearby countries.

This thriving civilization was overthrown in the 14th Century B.C. by the barbarians from central and eastern Europe. Armed with

iron weapons, the Hellenes, as they were known, attacked the Cretan state and destroyed it. Other tribes followed. In time the invaders intermarried with the natives and a new people, the Greeks, came out of this union.

Cretan Civilization. The Cretan civilization was an important link between ancient Egypt and classical Greece. Cretan writing, a combination of phonetic and picture writing, is still undeciphered. However, remaining ruins and objects—pictures, utensils, weapons—give us a glimpse of the way the Cretans lived. Their palaces were large and well built, with remarkable plumbing, including baths and drains. The Cretans stressed athletics, such as boxing, foot racing and dancing. Women were treated as the equals of men. The chief deity of the Cretans was a goddess who was worshiped as the source of evil as well as of good.

The greatest achievement of the Cretans was their art—delicate, beautiful and creative. The paintings, sculpture and pottery give proof of their many skills.

CIVILIZATIONS OF THE EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN

Civilization	Place	Rulers and Religion	Contributions
Hittites— 3000- 1200 B.C.	Turkey and Palestine	Croesus	Iran weapons and tools
Lydians— 950-547 B.C.	Western Turkey Capital: Sardis		Coinage of money
Arameans— 1200-732 B.C.	Syria, Damascus		Aramaic language became common language of Near East
Phoenicians— Several cen- turies after 1000 B.C.	East Mediter- ranean Coast	Abraham, Moses, Saul, David, Solomon Religion: Judaism God: Jehovah	Traders—spread goods and ideas including the phonetic alphabet; purple dye
Hebrews— 1000 B.C.- 66 A.D.	Palestine		Monatheism: Old Testament (Bible); Ten Commandments
Cretans— 3000- 1500 B.C.	Aegean Islands (Crete), Coast of Turkey and Greece		Link between ancient Egypt and classical Greece; art, equal- ity of women, sports, plumbing

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. Which of the following did the Hebrews contribute? (a) alphabet, (b) astrology, (c) monotheism, (d) the arch. 1.
2. The Phoenicians were *not* known for (a) spreading the alphabet, (b) trading, (c) sculpture, (d) purple dye. 2.
3. The famous Hebrew who wrote many "Psalms" was (a) Solomon, (b) Moses, (c) David, (d) Elijah. 3.
4. An important export of Phoenicia was (a) iron weapons, (b) battering rams, (c) purple dye, (d) horses. 4.
5. The Lydian king famous for his wealth was (a) Sennacherib, (b) Croesus, (c) Sargon, (d) Hammurabi. 5.

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. The leading seafaring nation in the Mediterranean about 1500 B.C. was
2. The people who carried the alphabet to Europe were the
3. Cretan civilization is also known as
4. Coinage was contributed to civilization by the
5. Two men who made a deep study of ancient Cretan civilization were
6. The language spoken by Jesus Christ was
7. The earliest development of iron weapons is credited to the
8. Crete was conquered by the
9. "As rich as" is a modern expression referring to a wealthy person.
10. Equality of women was emphasized by the

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Show how geography influenced the history of (a) Phoenicia or (b) Crete.
2. Show the ancient origin of three of the following modern terms: (a) paper, (b) Palestine, (c) alphabet, (d) "born to the purple," (e) the Mazda bulb.
3. Describe the contributions to the modern world of two of the following: (a) the Phoenicians, (b) the Chaldeans, (c) the Lydians, (d) the Persians.
4. Show how Minoan civilization was a stepping stone between the Asiatic and Greek cultures. Mention three of the economic and cultural activities of the people of Crete.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

2. Ancient Greece

The seaport cities of ancient Greece welcomed seafarers from Phoenicia, Egypt, Crete and Asia who brought with them not only cargo, but the best of the then known world's knowledge. They used this knowledge to build a glorious Greece



TROJAN HORSE



PARTHENON



DISCUS THROWER



GREEK VASE

which reached its "Golden Age" of power and prosperity under the genius of Pericles.

Greece lives forever in the brilliant philosophic writings of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle; in the dramas of Aeschylus and Sophocles; in the colorful histories of Herodotus and Thucydides; in the mathematical wizardry of Euclid and Archimedes, and in the skill of the "Father of Medicine," Hippocrates. When the Macedonian, Alexander the Great, conquered Greece, he spread its civilization everywhere.

Greek love of beauty and harmony lives for us in gems of architecture, art and sculpture. They loved also the beauty of an ordered mind and a disciplined body.

They hated tyrants. Under Solon they introduced the idea of the rights of citizens — freedom to speak up in meeting, freedom to vote, and the right to be tried by a jury.

Greece laid the foundations of the beginnings of the democracy as we know it — the democracy we still cherish and have fought many times to keep.



EUCLID



ALEXANDER



ARISTOTLE



PLATO



PERICLES



SOCRATES



"The Glory That Was Greece..."

1. Early History

Who Were the Early Greeks? The Hellenes—barbarian, wandering tribes of Indo-European peoples—moved southward around 1400 B.C. from the Black Sea and the Danube River areas into the land called Greece. They defeated the natives and destroyed much of the Cretan civilization that they found. This movement lasted for 400 years, beginning with the 15th Century B.C. By 1000 B.C. all of Greece and parts of Asia Minor and the Aegean islands were under the control of the Dorian, Aeolian (ee-oh'-li-an) and Ionian tribes.

The Homeric Age. The so-called "Dark Ages" that followed the fall of the Cretan culture lasted until the middle of the 8th Century B.C. There are few archaeological remains to tell us about this early period of Greek history. Our chief source of information about these times is the works of one of the world's great writers, Homer. His two great poems, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, are still widely read.



EXTENT OF THE GREEK EMPIRE. When Cyrus, Persian King, conquered the Greek city-states in Asia Minor he installed Persian tyrants. The revolt of the Greek city-states that followed was put down by Darius. However, he did not again force tyrants upon them.

The *Iliad* tells of a war between the Greeks and the Trojans. Actually, it probably represented a Greek pirate expedition in about 1000 B.C. But, according to Homer, it begins with the kidnaping of Helen, wife of a king of Sparta, by Paris, one of the sons of the King of Troy. The Greeks seek revenge and lay siege to the city of Troy. For ten years the war drags on.

The poem describes the deeds of the heroes on both sides, ending in the death of Hector, the Trojan warrior. It also tells of the capture of the city through the trick of the wooden horse (the Trojan horse) built by the Greeks at the suggestion of Ulysses, or Odysseus, the "wiliest of the Greeks."

For a long time it was believed that this story was imaginary. But, in 1870-73 Schliemann discovered nine cities (built on top of each other) on the site of Troy. It is now believed that the sixth city level is the Troy of the *Iliad*.

The *Odyssey* tells of the wanderings of Odysseus after the fall of Troy, his return to his home at Ithaca after many years' absence, and his revenge upon the nobles who had tried to seize his throne. These poems were probably sung and handed down from generation to generation until they were finally written down about 800 B.C.

The Homeric Greeks lived simply. They were governed by rulers who were, however, not all-powerful or very wealthy. The poems tell about princesses washing clothing by the river banks, and of princes tending flocks. The people were warriors, traders and farmers. Much of their time was spent in fighting other tribes, or in raising sheep and cattle, olives, grapes and wheat. Sometimes they traded with other cities.

Geographic Influence on Grecian Development. We have seen how geography played an important part in the lives of the Egyptians and the Phoenicians. Greece, also, found its development affected by geography as follows:

1. **Mountains.** Greece is crisscrossed by many mountains, with river valleys in between. Communication between the different areas was always difficult, causing the rise of independent city-states. In fact, this is one reason why the Greeks never united into one large, strong country.
2. **Nearness to the Sea.** Because Greece has a long, irregular coastline, no place on the peninsula is far from the sea. The good seaports led to the growth of trade with other countries.
3. **Inadequate Farm Land.** Cut up by mountains, Greece has little good farm land. In some places cattle was raised; in others the olive and the grape were cultivated. Olive oil was very important to the Greeks; they used it for cooking and lighting.

But little wheat could be grown, and the Greeks could not raise enough food for their own needs. Thus they had to trade

with other countries, exchanging pottery, olives, wine and woolens for grain. By the 6th Century B.C. the Greeks had become the leading traders of the Aegean and eastern Mediterranean seas, exchanging not only products but ideas as well.

The Greeks Set Up Colonies. Between 800 and 600 B.C. the poverty of the land drove many Greeks from their homes. They set up many colonies along the shores of the Mediterranean and Black seas, along the west coast of Italy, in southern France and in Egypt. Naples in Italy, Syracuse in Sicily, Marseilles in France and Byzantium (later Constantinople and now Istanbul) began as Greek colonies.

The colonists traded with their neighbors, bringing prosperity to themselves and to their mother country. They kept their own language and customs and spread Greek culture and influence throughout the Mediterranean area.

What Forces United the Greeks? We speak of Greece as if it were a united country, like Egypt or Babylonia. Actually, the Greeks never joined into one state. Except for a brief period in their history they remained divided into dozens of small, independent city-states.

Yet the Greeks had many bonds that made for unity and helped to keep them apart from other peoples. These bonds included:

1. **Common Ancestry.** The Greeks believed they were descended from a common ancestor, Hellen. They called their country Hellas.
2. **Common Language.** Although they spoke in different dialects, the Greeks could all understand each other. Their written language was based on the Phoenician alphabet. To this alphabet they added vowels.
3. **Common Literature.** Common history and legends gave rise to a literature enjoyed by all Greeks. Spartan youths, with little formal schooling, read and memorized Homer as did the better-educated Athenian boys.
4. **Common Religion.** All the Greeks worshiped the same gods and goddesses. They believed them to be like human beings who schemed and fought and loved like humans. However, their deathlessness and their ability to change their physical form made them a race of supermen and superwomen.

The Greek gods included Zeus (zoos), chief god and king of the skies, his wife Hera, his brother Poseidon (po-sy'-don), god of the sea, his son Apollo, god of light and patron of the arts, Athena, the goddess of wisdom, and many others. The gods and their families lived at the top of Mt. Olympus. Few Greeks dared make plans without consulting the gods through priests at oracles (holy places). The most famous of these oracles was at Delphi, dedicated to Apollo.

5. *Olympic Games.* Once every four years the Greeks met at the foot of Mt. Olympus to honor the gods and hold contests and games. The winners were rewarded with laurel wreaths, and the city-states honored them, too. During this religious festival, all fighting among the Greeks stopped.

The first Olympic games were held in 776 B.C. and the four-year period between contests was called an *Olympiad*. The contests were in the dashes, distance runs, broad jumps, javelin and discus throws, boxing and chariot racing. They also included intellectual contests among poets, dramatists, musicians and artists.

What Forces Disunited the Greeks? In spite of these forces, which should have tied them closer together, the forces that kept them separated were more powerful:

1. *Loyalty to One's City-State.* Each Greek was loyal to his own city-state. The fighting between the city-states so weakened them that they were finally easily defeated by the Macedonians.
2. *Geographic Factors.* The mountainous nature of the country hindered unification.
3. *Variations in Types of Government.* The dozens of city-states had different types of government. Some, like Sparta, were *totalitarian states* (absolute rule). Others, like Athens, became *democracies*, in which people governed themselves. Still others were *aristocracies*, in which the government was controlled by nobles, or *oligarchies* (oll'-ih-gar-keez), in the hands of a few rich men. *Tyrannies* were also found in some of the Greek states. A tyrant was a man who seized power by illegal means and kept control by force. Today we would call him a *dictator*.

2. Political Developments

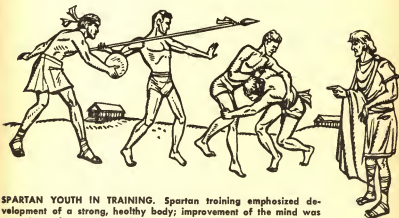
Developing a Spartan Soldier Class. The city-state of Sparta, located in Laconia in the Peloponnesus, became the leading military state in ancient Greece.

The Spartans had conquered the Peloponnesians and forced them into slavery. These slaves, or *helots*, outnumbered their masters by 20 to 1. Therefore, because the Spartans feared that the helots would some day revolt, they developed a powerful military state.

Each newborn child was brought before the *ephors* (the government leaders) for a physical examination. The sickly or deformed were left to die of exposure. For the first seven years the child was reared by his parents, but when he reached the age of seven he was put into a military school run by the state. There he was prepared for the life of a soldier.

Physical training, drilling with weapons and tests of endurance such as regular flogging marked their lives. They learned to read but culture was not encouraged. They were taught to be brief in speech, or *laconic* (from Laconia).

At 20 the boys became soldiers and were permitted to marry. However, until they reached the age of 30, they had to live in the barracks. The state gave them land and slaves to provide the family needs. Thus, they could devote all their lives to military duties. They became citizens at 30 and could then vote, but their military



SPARTAN YOUTH IN TRAINING. Spartan training emphasized development of a strong, healthy body; improvement of the mind was secondary. They were taught to endure pain, and to die in battle was an act of heroism.

services lasted until the age of 60. With this rigid training it is easy to see why Sparta, with only 25,000 male citizens, was the strongest state in all of Greece.

Democracy Begins in Athens. In Athens man took his greatest step forward in the ancient world. It was here that he developed the idea of democracy. Until then there had been absolute rulers who had never been elected by those they ruled. The word "democracy" itself comes from the Greek *demos* (the people) and *kratein* (to rule).

The establishment of democratic government in Athens may be traced through the reforms of four leaders:

1. **Draco.** In 621 B.C. Draco (dray'-co), a nobleman, drew up Athens' first written code of laws. The laws were very severe—they were written "in blood, not ink." Today, the word *draconic* is still a synonym for "harsh" or "severe." But, since they were put down in black and white, the judges, most of whom were nobles, could not apply unwritten laws to favor their own class.

2. **Solon.** In 594 B.C. Draco's laws were rewritten by Solon (so'-lon). We still use his name as a synonym for a wise legislator. He tried to improve the condition of the poor by these measures: (a) no more enslavement for debt; (b) all citizens, even the poorest, could take part in the legislature, or Assembly; (c) cancellation of mortgages on land; (d) limiting the amount of land a noble might own.
3. **Clisthenes.** It was the lawgiver Clisthenes (kliss'-the-nee-z) (508 B.C.) who made Athens the first truly democratic state in world history. He enlarged the Assembly, widened its powers and created a Council of 500 which represented the various classes. The Council administered the laws and made new ones; these had first to be approved by the Assembly. State officials were elected by the citizens. Executive power was given to ten generals, each called a *strategus*, elected for one year. Clisthenes also gave citizenship to some immigrants and former slaves.

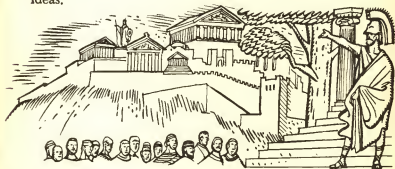
Safeguards were built into the laws to prevent the growth of one-man rule. Once a year the citizens of Athens could write the name of any person whom they thought dangerous to the government. Any person receiving more than 6,000 such votes was forced into exile for 10 years. This policy of *ostracism* gets its name from the piece of shell (*ostrakon*) on which the name was scratched. Between serving on the popular juries, or on the Council of 500, or in the Assembly, the majority of Athenian citizens gained experience in public service.

4. **Pericles.** Between 461-429 B.C. the most important leader of Athens was Pericles (perr'-ih-kleez). He was elected again and again as one of the *strategi*, or generals. In the "Golden Age of Pericles," Athens became the "teacher of all Hellas." Pericles opened all offices to the common people and, for the first time, paid for government service. Until then only the rich could afford to serve. During his leadership Athens developed art, architecture, and sculpture to a high degree.

Athenian Democracy Was Not Complete. By modern standards, the government of Athens was a limited democracy. Here are some of the ways in which their democracy differed from ours:

1. Not everybody in Athens was, or could become, a citizen. Of the 300,000 persons in Athens, half were slaves or foreigners with no political rights. There were about 50,000 male citizens. The Athenians rarely permitted foreigners to become citizens; in the time of Pericles citizenship was limited to those whose father and mother were citizens. This meant that a large portion of the people in Athens could not vote, hold office or sue in the courts.

2. Much of the wealth and power of Athens rested upon slavery. The slaves were generally prisoners of war and thus often Greek. They worked as servants, farmers, laborers or skilled artisans. They did the heavy, menial work the Athenian citizens despised.
3. Women were not permitted to vote, hold office or own property in Athens. They were given almost no education and occupied a low marriage and social position.
4. The large popular juries and the practice of ostracism were often abused by skilled orators who were able to sway people by the force of their words rather than the honesty of their ideas.



THE DEMOCRACY OF ATHENS. The Athenian form of democracy differed greatly from the form of democracy that we practice. All male citizens had an opportunity of taking a direct hand in the affairs of government. In our country we are governed by our elected representatives. The Athenian jury consisted of about 500 men who served for one year. There were no judges or lawyers; each man pleaded his own case.

5. The Athenians practiced *direct democracy*; ours is an *indirect, or representative democracy*. In order to take part in the Assembly, a citizen had to attend it himself. He could not choose someone else to go for him. At any one time, therefore, there could be between 5,000 and 6,000 citizens in the Assembly. Today we elect representatives to make our laws.

3. The Wars With Persia — 500-479 B.C.

How the Persian Wars Began. Through the conquest of Asia Minor, the Persian Empire reached the coast of the Aegean Sea. Here the colonies set up by the Greeks came under Persian control. In 500 B.C. several colonies, under the leadership of the city of Miletus (my-lee'-tus), revolted against Persian rule. Athens and several other cities in Greece aided their sister states. The revolt

was put down by King Darius, who swore revenge upon Athens and the other city-states for the help they had given.

First Persian Invasion. In 490 B.C. Darius sent a fleet across the Aegean Sea to attack Athens. It anchored near Marathon, 26 miles northeast of the city. Athens asked Sparta for help to fight off the Persians, but a religious festival kept Spartan troops at home.

At the decisive Battle of Marathon the outnumbered Athenians defeated the Persian armies. The famous Athenian runner, Pheidippides (fy-dip'-eh-deez), ran the 26 miles from Marathon to Athens and with his dying breath gasped out news of the victory (Today, a 26-mile race is called a *marathon*.)



THE PERSIAN EMPIRE UNDER DARIUS. The shaded area shows the extent of the Persian Empire — the largest empire in the world up to that time. Darius built the Royal Road, shown in the map, 1600 miles long, so that he could send his armies, spies and messengers wherever they were needed quickly.

Second Persian Invasion. Darius was preparing another and bigger attack when he died. His plans were carried on by his son and successor, Xerxes (zerk'-seez). In 480 B.C. Xerxes, with an army of half a million men, invaded Greece by land and attacked from the north. Meanwhile, a huge fleet followed along the coast.

The Greeks met at Corinth and selected Sparta to lead them against the Persians. A band of 300 Spartans, led by Leonidas, tried to halt the Persians at the Pass of Thermopylae (ther-mop'-ih-lee), which controlled the entrance to southern Greece. Here they might have been held off had not a traitor showed the Persians a secret pathway. The Spartans were wiped out, but not until they had taken a heavy toll of the invader. Athens was then destroyed.

During the 10-year span of peace the Athenians had built up a large navy. In a battle with Persian ships in the narrow Strait of Salamis, the Athenians were victorious (480 B.C.)

The following year the Greeks, under Spartan leadership, defeated the Persian armies at Plataea. The rout of the Persians was completed by the destruction of the Persian fleet at Mycale. Persia stopped trying to conquer the Greeks after these defeats.

Why Were These Wars Important? The defeat of the Persians by the Greeks had important results: (1) Greek civilization, with its stress on freedom and progress, was allowed to develop. The despotism of the Persians declined. (2) The glorious victories of the Greeks stimulated Greek intellectual life and ushered in the "Golden Age" of Greek civilization. (3) The growth of trade and commerce following the Persian defeats contributed to a great increase of wealth, with Athens receiving the most benefit. (4) It marked the beginning of a Greek offensive against the Persian Empire. A century and a half later Alexander the Great delivered the final blow (331 B.C.).

4. *The Peloponnesian Wars—431-404 B.C.*

Athens Becomes the Leading City. The 5th Century B.C. is often called the "Golden Age of Greek Civilization." It was during this period that the culture that influenced the history of the world in later years expanded and flowered. Athens, the leading city of Greece, was the center of this culture.

Athens' leadership was due to a number of factors: (1) Athens produced many great leaders, among them Aristides (ar-riss-ti'-deez), who built up the *Delian League* (a confederation, or loose union of Greek states) against possible Persian invasions; Cimon, who drove the Persians from the shores of the Black Sea, and Pericles, under whose 30-year leadership Athens became "the school of Hellas." (2) The growth of trade and commerce increased the wealth of these states. (3) Athens became the leader of the Confederacy of Delos (*Delian League*) and made it the Athenian Empire. When the danger of Persian invasion was over, member states were forced to remain in the League. The money they were forced to pay for protection was sent to Athens, where it could be and was used for Athenian purposes.

Rise of Rivalry Between Athens and Sparta. The growth of Athenian power was closely watched by Sparta. As the *Delian League* fell under Athenian control, the Spartans created the *Peloponnesian League*. Thus, the Spartans became supreme on land, just as the Athenians controlled the sea.

The rivalry between these two states concerned differing ideas of political rule—the *democratic* (government by the people) Athenian idea *versus* the *oligarchic* (government in the hands of a

few) Spartan system. In addition, control of the trade of the western Mediterranean was at stake. Corinth, a member of the Peloponnesian League, challenged Athenian sea supremacy.

Athens Is Destroyed. In 461 B.C. war broke out between Sparta and Athens. After periodic struggles, a truce was signed in 445 B.C. However, the decisive struggle began in 431 B.C. The Peloponnesian Wars ended in complete defeat for Athens.

Shortly after war broke out again a plague struck Athens, killing one-third of her population, including Pericles (429 B.C.). In a desperate try to win the war at sea, Athens attacked Sparta's ally, Syracuse, in southern Italy. The attack failed and cost Athens a great deal of seapower and manpower.

With help from the Persians, Sparta destroyed the last Athenian defenses at the Battle of Aegospotami (404 B.C.). The city of Athens was captured, her long walls (connecting her to her seaport Piraeus—py-ree'-us) destroyed and her empire taken away. Athens' days of supremacy were over.

Sparta and Thebes Become Leaders. From 404 to 371 B.C. Sparta was the most important state in Greece. Her support of the upper classes in many of the Greek states, however, created bad feeling among the lower classes. Thebes was the first Greek state to revolt against Spartan rule. Under General Epaminondas, the Thebans defeated the Spartan troops at the Battle of Leuctra in 371 B.C.

Theban rule was short-lived, however. Thebes was defeated by Sparta and Athens at the Battle of Mantinea (362 B.C.).

How Did the Wars Affect the Greeks? For almost 100 years the Greeks had fought among themselves. Because they could not unite, they grew weaker and more vulnerable to attack. Thus, they were easily defeated by King Philip II of Macedonia (page 44).

5. Culture of the Hellenic Period

Greek Thought Was Original. Very few peoples have influenced modern history as much as have the Greeks. In many fields of culture the Greeks left an impression that molded the future of the world. The remarkable thing is that these contributions were made by a people few in numbers, in comparison with, for instance, the Persians. The Greeks had a lively curiosity about this world and everything in it, particularly man. They tried to find a pattern of order and harmony in man's life and the world.

Art and Sculpture. The Greeks' idea of balance and harmony was expressed in their art. The temple, the home of the gods, represented their artistic skill at its best. The hill in Athens, called the Acropolis, became the site of the most beautiful buildings in

Greece. The outstanding one was the Parthenon, said to have been the most perfect of all structures. This beautiful temple to Athena was designed by the architect Ictinus. The sculpture, including a huge ivory and gold statue of Athena, was done by Phidias.

Greek sculpture showed the ideal of man as a perfect blending of body and soul. The statues were perfectly proportioned and lifelike. Myron, who created the well-known *Discus Thrower*, specialized in statues of Greek athletes. A hundred years later, Praxiteles created the realistic statue of the god Hermes. This is one of the few original works of Greek sculpture that remains. (The rest are mostly Roman copies.)

ARCHIMEDES — MATHEMATICIAN AND INVENTOR. Archimedes showed how the screw, pulley and lever could make work easier. He also discovered the principle that keeps ships afloat. In this drawing he is shown about to be killed while working out a mathematical problem.



Some Greek Scientific Theories Become Fact. The Greeks were very curious about the nature of the world in which they lived. They were a questioning people, and the "why" and the "what" were ever present in their investigations.

Thales (thay'-leez), born about 620 B.C., is said to be the "father of natural science." Thales taught that the basic substance in the world was water. This substance, he said, may change its form (as ice or steam), but not its composition.

Pythagoras (pi-thag'-o-ras), born about 590 B.C., was a mathematician who taught that everything in the world could be numbered. He is best known for the Pythagorean Theorem used in geometry.

Democritus (born about 460 B.C.) suggested that everything in the world was made up of moving atoms—so small that they could not be divided. These, he stated, combined to form the various objects in the world.

Hippocrates, who lived in the 5th Century B.C., is called "the father of medicine." He taught that every disease has a natural cause—a new idea in the superstitious ancient world. In the school he founded, he and his students observed the symptoms and

progress of various diseases. The famous Hippocratic Oath, a code of ethics for doctors, is still taken by medical students when they are graduated.

Greek Drama Lives On. To the Greeks, the drama was an important form of education. It portrayed their legends, religion, history and beliefs. The drama today owes much to the work of the Greeks.

Plays were presented in an open amphitheater with very little scenery or stage settings. At first the entire story was chanted by a leader and chorus; later, individuals from the chorus became the actors.

The theme of the Greek tragedies is the dominance of divine will over human desires, and the strong power of fate or destiny.

Aeschylus (ess'kil-lus) (525-546 B.C.), called the "father of Greek drama," wrote about the relationship of man with his gods. His great plays include *Prometheus Bound* and *Agamemnon*.

Sophocles (496-406 B.C.), who developed more real human beings in his plays, gave the gods a lesser role. His great tragedies *Oedipus Rex* and *Antigone* still are acted on our modern stage.

Euripides' (480-406 B.C.) plays shocked older people because he doubted the existence of the gods, sympathized with the poor and condemned war. Eventually he was exiled for his beliefs.

Aristophanes (ar-is-tof'-a-nee-z) (448-380 B.C.) poked fun at the politicians, writers and philosophers. These satires were well received by the Greeks. His plays, including *The Frogs*, *Lysistrata* and *The Clouds*, still amuse people today.

The Philosophers Stimulate Thought. Philosophy, which means "love of knowledge," is the study of the problems of life. It deals with human behavior, the relations of man with other men, and the principles that explain human conduct. The Greeks were the first to raise such questions—and many of them seem as difficult to solve today as they were in the 5th Century B.C.

At that time there sprang up in Greece a group of wandering teachers called Sophists, or "men of wisdom." The Sophists began to claim that usefulness was the measure of all things; that there was no such thing as absolute truth. Some of them were openly critical of the gods, the state and the accepted standards of human behavior.

Socrates (469-399 B.C.) also challenged accepted beliefs and was critical of what he considered loose thinking. Unlike the Sophists, Socrates taught that man can find absolute truth. But first he must rid himself of all prejudice and reexamine his own beliefs. "Know thyself," he urged.

His method of teaching, called the "Socratic dialogue," was a question-and-answer technique. Each answer brought forth another

question to clarify and lead to a conclusion. Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth by his teachings and was condemned to die by drinking a poison, hemlock.

We know about Socrates through the writings of his most famous pupil, Plato (427-347 B.C.). Plato's *Dialogues* are records of Socrates' question-and-answer conversations. In one of them, *The Republic*, the speakers discuss an ideal state. Plato believed it would be run by philosophers. Plato founded a school called the "Academy" which lasted 800 years.

Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) was a Macedonian and Plato's most brilliant pupil. After a stay in Athens he became tutor to Alexander, son of Philip of Macedon, for several years. Then he returned to Athens, where he opened a school (the Lyceum) and taught for 12 years. He wrote on many aspects of learning, including politics, astronomy, grammar, economics, logic and literature.

In his gathering and analyzing of facts he laid the foundations for scientific inquiry. For 2000 years his writings have been studied in schools.

PLATO — SOCRATES' MOST FAMOUS STUDENT. When Socrates died in 399 B.C., Plato left Athens. He returned in 387 B.C. and set up his school of philosophy. It later became the first university known in history.



Historical Writings. Before the Greeks the writing of history consisted of the collection of myths and legends about heroes and gods. Herodotus (he-rodd'-o-tus), 484-425 B.C., the "father of history," traveled throughout the Near East to gather information for his book on the Persian Wars. The book is a mine of information about the customs and history of the Persians and Egyptians.

Thucydides (thyoo-sid'-ih-deez), 471-400 B.C., was more accurate and impartial in his *History of the Peloponnesian Wars*. He examined the evidence on both sides and showed the relationship between causes and results. He stressed the importance of people in these events, rather than the influence of the gods as Herodotus had done. Thucydides is known as the "first scientific historian."

Greek Literature Is Still Taught. In the 7th Century B.C. the poet Hesiod (he'-si-odd) wrote about the Greek gods in his *Theogony*. (This work, along with Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, was memorized

by most Greek schoolboys.) In his *Work and Days* he wrote about the life of the farmer.

Lyric poetry (sung to the accompaniment of a lyre) was written by Sappho, the first woman poetess, and by Pindar, considered by the Greeks as their greatest poet after Homer.

Oratory Is Developed. The Sophists introduced the art of oratory, and the Greeks developed this form of expression through the famous speeches of Demosthenes (born in 384 B.C.), particularly those warning the Greeks against the plans of Philip of Macedonia. Our word *philippic*, meaning "tirade" (a speech directed against someone), comes from these speeches.

Educational System. The Greeks (with the exception of the Spartans and some of their allies) aimed at producing "a perfect mind in a perfect body." Education was not the formal type with which we are familiar today. Rather, the Greeks received their education by watching plays, in the discussions in the market places, in the speeches of their leaders and in the poetry of their writers.

Formal education of Greek boys began at the age of seven. (Girls received no education.) The boy was sent to a private school with a slave, called a *pedagogue*, who watched over him and taught him manners. At school the boy studied grammar, reading, writing and some counting, music (the singing of poetry and the playing of the lyre), public speaking and gymnastics. If he wanted to study further, the boy was sent to the Academy or Lyceum.

The chief purpose of education was the development of responsible citizens, interested in politics and public affairs. However, only Greek children of the upper classes received formal education.

6. The Expansion of Greek Culture

Rise of Macedonia. To the north of Greece was Macedonia, whose inhabitants were distant cousins of the Greeks. They spoke the same language, but were far less cultured. Under the leadership of King Philip II the power of Macedonia was expanded northward to the Danube River. Then, turning south, Philip struck at the Greeks (see page 40). One by one, the city-states were conquered until in 338 B.C. Greek independence came to an end. (Sparta held out a few years longer.) Macedonia had succeeded in uniting the Greeks—something they had never been able to do for themselves.

Philip then began to plan an even greater program of expansion. The empire of Persia, he believed, was weak. He planned to attack and destroy it. In the middle of his preparations he was murdered; his throne was left to his 20-year-old son Alexander (336 B.C.).

Alexander the Great Is Victorious. Alexander "the Great" is one of the most remarkable leaders and conquerors in all of world history. He had been taught by Aristotle for three years and had acquired a love of Greek culture and learning. He was determined to spread it over the world.

Before he could go ahead he faced revolt in Macedonia and in Greece. He quickly put down the uprising and destroyed the city of Thebes. He spared the house of the poet Pindar, whose works he admired.

Then, with an army of 35,000 troops, Alexander invaded the Persian Empire. In a series of victories, he became the master of the eastern world. At Granicus (334 B.C.), Issus (333 B.C.) and Arbela (331 B.C.) he defeated the Persian armies, and took over



ALEXANDER ROUTS KING DARIUS. When Alexander the Great invaded Syria in search of King Darius of Persia, he left his wounded behind. Darius found them and killed them. Seeking revenge, Alexander returned to Issus where he defeated Darius.

the entire Persian Empire. He conquered the city-states along the Mediterranean coast, including the old Phoenician city of Tyre. He defeated the Egyptians and founded Alexandria as a center of Hellenic culture.

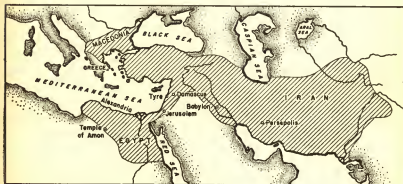
He turned eastward across Asia Minor and reached the Indus River in north India. Then he turned back to Babylon and set up his capital there in 324 B.C. The next year, at 33, he died of a desert fever.

Alexander's Empire Is Divided. Alexander's empire, stretching from Egypt eastward beyond the Indus River, did not last long after his death. He had not been able to set up a lasting government or provide for succession to the throne. The result was civil war, lasting almost forty years, as his generals fought for control.

Finally, the empire was divided: (1) Egypt went to Ptolemy (tol'-e-mi), (2) the greater part of the Asiatic provinces went to Seleucus (se-loo'-kus) and, (3) Macedonia, including Greece, went

to Antigonus. Each of these generals established a dynasty that ruled for several centuries before they were all conquered by Rome.

How Alexander's Conquests Affected World History. Alexander's conquests had great impact on world history. He carried Greek culture to the non-Greek world and spread it throughout the territories he conquered. He founded many cities, a number of them named after him. He married a Persian princess, the daughter of Darius, and encouraged his soldiers to marry Persian women. He worshipped Persian gods as well as his own and took into his army thousands of Persians. He encouraged trade between his homeland and the Orient. He settled many Greek immigrants in the cities he established. From this union of Greek-Oriental culture came a broader and in some ways richer civilization called *Hellenistic*.



EXTENT OF ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE. The shaded area indicates the extent of Alexander the Great's empire, which stretched from Macedonia to India. Upon his death, the empire dissolved quickly.

7. The Hellenistic World

Alexandria, Center of Hellenistic Culture. The cultural center of the Hellenistic world was the city of Alexandria in Egypt. In this broad-avenued city of fine homes the Ptolemies built a Museum, or university. Here was housed a collection of about 700,000 volumes—scrolls of papyrus. The museum served as a research center for the scholars of the Mediterranean world.

Scientists Discover Important Principles. The Hellenistic era produced more useful inventions than did any other until the Renaissance in the 15th Century A.D. It was a practical civilization; it stressed more comfortable living and—for a few—getting rich.

One of the famous scholars at Alexandria was Euclid (yoo'-klid), whose theorems in plane geometry are still studied today. Another

scholar was Archimedes (ar-ki-mee'-deez) of Syracuse, in Sicily, who discovered the principle of specific gravity and the law of floating bodies. Through the use of pulleys, levers and screws he was able to construct many machines including engines of warfare like catapults for hurling huge stones.

Eratosthenes (er-a-toss'-the-neeze), a famous geographer-librarian at Alexandria, figured the diameter of the earth almost correctly, and estimated the distance to the sun with an error of only one per cent. He also produced a map with lines of latitude and longitude. He suggested that the earth was round and that India could be reached by sailing west.

In astronomy, Aristarchus (arr-iss-tar'-kus) said that the earth revolved around the sun. Hipparchus invented plane and spherical trigonometry and was able to predict eclipses of the sun and the moon fairly accurately.

Art Is Lifelike—Architecture Grand. Many great public buildings, such as baths, libraries, theaters and palaces, were erected in the Hellenistic world. The most famous structure was the Pharos or lighthouse of Alexandria, rising 400 feet, with eight columns supporting the light at the top.

Hellenistic art was more expressive and lifelike than Hellenic (pure Greek) art. Human emotions like pain and grief were wonderfully portrayed, and sculptures showed action and motion. These included *The Death of Laocoon*, the *Winged Victory of Samothrace*, the famed *Venus de Milo* and many others.

Philosophers—Cynics, Stoics and Epicureans. New philosophies arose in Athens following the changes brought about by the joining of Greek and Oriental cultures. The Cynics, of whom the most important was Diogenes (dy-oj'-en-eez), taught that men must have contempt for power and worldly possessions.

The Stoics and their leader, Zeno, taught acceptance of misfortune, patience and courage. Their belief in the brotherhood of man had a strong effect on Christianity. Epicurus believed that there was no life after death. He urged enjoyment of life on earth, including the search for knowledge.



Literature Is Not Lasting. There was little enduring literature produced in the Hellenistic era. The greatest contribution was the preservation of the classical Greek heritage. Thousands of students worked in the great library of Alexandria, cataloguing books, copying documents and editing manuscripts. The library, supported by the Ptolemies, was the first state-supported university in the world.

Transition to the Roman World. The Hellenistic culture of the Greek cities in southern Italy inspired Roman interest in poetry and art, in philosophy and literature. When the Romans conquered the east-

HELLENIC CULTURES (8th to 3rd Centuries B.C.)

Field	Name	Important Work	Significance
Art and Architecture		Decorated the Parthenon; statue of "Athena". Statue of "Hermes"	Greek architecture (Doric, Ionic, Corinthian) still used as models today; life-like statues.
	Phidias Praxiteles		
Drama	Aeschylus	Agamemnon	First great dramatist.
	Sophocles	Oedipus Rex; Antigone	Stressed human being in his plays.
	Euripides	The Trojan Women	Expressed doubts about the gods.
	Aristophanes	The Frogs; The Clouds	Comedy and satire.
History	Herodotus	Persian Wars	The "Father of History."
	Thucydides	Peloponnesian Wars	Stressed accuracy.
	Xenophon	Anabasis — Cyrus' defeat by Persians	Historian and essayist.
Philosophy	Socrates		Questions and answers in teaching; freedom of speech.
	Plato	The Republic; Dialogues	Description of ideal state. Recorded Socrates' teachings.
	Aristotle	Politics and others	Encyclopedic learning in many fields; used as a text for 2000 years.
Literature	Homer	Iliad; Odyssey	Source book for our knowledge of early Greek history; epic stories.
	Hesiod	Theogony	Stories of Greek gods.
	Pindar	Ode to Aphrodite	Great lyric poet.
	Sappho	Odes of Victory	Great woman poet.
Science	Pythagoras		Famous mathematician; right triangle theorem.
	Thales		Studied the heavenly bodies.
	Hippocrates		"Father of medicine"; the Hippocratic oath.

HELLENISTIC CULTURE (3rd to 1st centuries B.C.)

Science	Euclid		"Father of geometry."
	Archimedes		Principle of specific gravity; law of floating bodies.
	Eratosthenes		Geographer — calculated the diameter of the earth.
Philosophy	Ptolemy		Geocentric theory that earth is the center of the universe.
	Diogenes the Cynic		Indifference to possessions is most important.
	Epicurus		Attainment of happiness is most important.
	Zeno the Stoic		Patience and courage.
Art and Architecture			Great buildings—libraries, baths, palaces. Emotions portrayed in sculpture.

ern Mediterranean world they inherited the task of spreading Greek culture.

Decline of Hellenistic Civilization. The Hellenistic civilization lasted for 300 years. There were great contrasts of wealth and poverty in the Hellenistic world. A few lived in luxury; the majority lived in misery—hungry and tattered. This situation grew even worse as slavery spread. Free men were thrown out of work; increased taxes and debts drove farmers off the land. Most people had no money. Intellectual life declined. Slave labor became so cheap that wealthy landowners and merchants ignored the new labor-saving inventions.

In addition, Alexander's heirs had never stopped fighting each other. Warfare among the Greek city-states, too, was continual. Slave revolts added to the disunity. All these factors weakened the Hellenistic world and made it an easy conquest for the growing power of Rome.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



DORIC



IONIC



CORINTHIAN

1. The period following the conquests of Alexander the Great and marking the spread of Greek culture is known as the (a) Augustan, (b) Byzantine, (c) Hellenistic, (d) Periclean Age. 1. _____
2. Our alphabet was most influenced by (a) China, (b) Greece, (c) India, (d) Russia. 2. _____
3. A characteristic of Athenian democracy was that (a) all adult male citizens could take part in the Assembly, (b) all residents were citizens, (c) women could vote, (d) there was no slavery. 3. _____
4. An important influence of ancient Greece was the (a) introduction of algebra, (b) development of philosophy, (c) beginning of the alphabet, (d) abolition of slavery. 4. _____
5. A Greek who is supposed to have written the story of the Trojan War was (a) Alexander the Great, (b) Hannibal, (c) Homer, (d) Julius Caesar. 5. _____
6. A Greek philosopher whose ideas are still studied today was (a) Aristotle, (b) Herodotus, (c) Phidias, (d) Zeno. 6. _____
7. Because of its art and literature this city was known as "the school of Hellas." It was considered more democratic than its rival city-states: (a) Babylon, (b) Thebes, (c) Troy, (d) Athens. 7. _____
8. A similarity between Athens and Sparta was that both (a) emphasized military training, (b) were city-states, (c) produced great art and drama, (d) followed monotheism in religion. 8. _____
9. In which field did the Athenians make the most lasting contribution to Western civilization? (a) industry, (b) literature, (c) militarism, (d) religion. 9. _____

10. A Persian invasion of Greece was defeated at the battle of (a) Corinth, (b) Tours, (c) Marathon, (d) Thermopylae. 10. _____
11. Which were enemies in the Peloponnesian War? (a) Greece and Rome, (b) Athens and Sparta, (c) Athens and Persia, (d) Egypt and Assyria. 11. _____
12. The Delian League was dominated by the city-state of (a) Athens, (b) Sparta, (c) Corinth, (d) Thebes. 12. _____
13. The "father of history" was (a) Thucydides, (b) Herodotus, (c) Xerxes, (d) Plato. 13. _____
14. The Delian League was organized as a (a) government of all the Greeks, (b) defense against the Persians, (c) protection for the oracle at Delphi, (d) method of organizing trade in the Black Sea. 14. _____
15. The excavations at Troy were the work of (a) Rawlinson, (b) Champollion, (c) Darius, (d) Schliemann. 15. _____
16. The Greek orator who spoke against Philip of Macedonia was (a) Cicero, (b) Demosthenes, (c) Aristotle, (d) Themistocles. 16. _____
17. Troy was located in (a) Asia Minor, (b) Macedonia, (c) north-western Greece, (d) Crete. 17. _____
18. The leading writer of comedy in Athens was (a) Euripides, (b) Aristophanes, (c) Sophocles, (d) Alcibiades. 18. _____
19. The Spartan Leonidas tried to hold a pass against the Persians at (a) Corinth, (b) Marathon, (c) Olympia, (d) Thermopylae. 19. _____
20. Athenian education emphasized (a) training for war, (b) ideals of citizenship, (c) belief in one god, (d) loyalty to a divine emperor. 20. _____
21. The Greeks could not unite into one nation because (a) they had different religions, (b) the Persians refused to allow it, (c) the geography of the country hindered it, (d) they had weak armies. 21. _____
22. Athens (a) had an especially strong navy for a time, (b) had a military government similar to Sparta's, (c) had a democracy founded on the equality of all inhabitants, (d) was noted only for its contributions to art. 22. _____
23. If Hippocrates were living today he would be (a) running for governor, (b) in charge of missile production, (c) honored as a great doctor, (d) the producer of great plays. 23. _____
24. The most beautiful Greek architecture was to be found in (a) tombs, (b) temples, (c) palaces, (d) business buildings. 24. _____
25. The Spartan form of government can best be compared with that of (a) the United States, (b) France, (c) Nazi Germany, (d) Italy. 25. _____
26. One of the following was *not* important in the geography of Greece. Which was it? (a) mountains, (b) seas, (c) islands, (d) lakes. 26. _____
27. One result of the Olympic games was to (a) encourage scholarship, (b) cause wars between city-states, (c) develop understanding among the city-states, (d) spread democracy. 27. _____

28. A factor that helped to unite all Greeks was (a) a common literature, (b) a common army, (c) a common government, (d) warfare against Egypt. 28. _____
29. The most effective method of spreading Greek culture throughout the East was (a) military training, (b) religious missions, (c) the Greek invention of the alphabet, (d) the export of Greek scholars, artists and scientists. 29. _____
30. An important reform of Solon was (a) abolishing the office of king, (b) establishing the practice of ostracism, (c) abolishing slavery, (d) limiting the amount of land nobles could own. 30. _____
31. The plateau in the center of Athens is called (a) the Acropolis, (b) the Parthenon, (c) Mt. Athos, (d) Mt. Olympus. 31. _____
32. The Greek who does *not* belong in the following group is (a) Solon, (b) Draco, (c) Plato, (d) Pericles. 32. _____
33. Euclid is associated with the study of (a) geometry, (b) algebra, (c) astronomy, (d) geography. 33. _____
34. One term *not* associated with advanced Greek political development was (a) democracy, (b) oligarchy, (c) tyrant, (d) absolute monarchy. 34. _____
35. The *Odyssey* is an ancient Greek (a) temple, (b) fortress, (c) epic poem, (d) religious festival. 35. _____
36. Helots were certain people who lived in (a) Athens, (b) Thebes, (c) Memphis, (d) Sparta. 36. _____
37. A sport *not* included in the ancient Greek Olympic games was (a) boxing, (b) wrestling, (c) discus, (d) swimming. 37. _____
38. Socrates was sentenced to die by the Athenian government because he (a) was convicted as a spy, (b) undermined the people's beliefs in the gods, (c) lost an important battle to the Persians, (d) wrote against the government. 38. _____
39. An oligarchy is a form of government in which (a) one man has absolute power, (b) the ruler inherits the throne, (c) a few men control the state, (d) the priests are the dominating class. 39. _____
40. The empire of Alexander the Great extended as far eastward as the (a) Black Sea, (b) Tigris River, (c) Persian Gulf, (d) Indus River. 40. _____
41. The enjoyment of life by avoiding pain was part of the beliefs of the (a) Stoics, (b) Sophists, (c) Epicureans, (d) Buddhists. 41. _____
42. Schliemann was to Troy what Evans was to (a) Crete, (b) Thebes, (c) Karnak, (d) Behistun. 42. _____
43. A great center of Hellenistic culture was (a) Athens, (b) Pergamum, (c) Alexandria, (d) Bagdad. 43. _____
44. The first law-giver of Athens was (a) Draco, (b) Clisthenes, (c) Pericles, (d) Solon. 44. _____
45. Athens reached the height of its power and influence during the (a) Age of Homer, (b) Age of Alexander, (c) Age of Pericles, (d) Age of Tyrants. 45. _____

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER TEST

Number the items in each of the following groups so that they are in chronological order.

- | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| A. Periclean Age | C. Aristotle | E. Solon |
| Hellenistic Age | Socrates | Draco |
| Homeric Age | Plato | Cleisthenes |
| B. Persian Wars | D. Battle of | |
| Peloponnesian | Marathon | F. Philip of |
| Wars | Battle of Salamis | Macedonia |
| Trojan War | Battle of Arbela | Pericles |
| | | Alexander |
| | | the Great |

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

- | I | II |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Phidias | a. founded the Delian League |
| 2. Socrates | b. harsh code of laws |
| 3. Herodotus | c. applied mathematics |
| 4. Aristotle | d. combination of Greek and Oriental cultures |
| 5. Aristides | e. "Father of history" |
| 6. Demosthenes | f. famous geographer |
| 7. Plato | g. Greek writer of comedies |
| 8. Pindar | h. defeat of the Persians |
| 9. Archimedes | i. famous Greek poet |
| 10. Aristophanes | j. martyr to freedom of speech |
| 11. Hellenistic | k. Theban leader |
| 12. Marathon | l. teacher of Alexander |
| 13. Draco | m. a Cynic philosopher |
| 14. Eratosthenes | n. Parthenon sculptor |
| 15. Diogenes | o. "Father of medicine" |
| | p. wrote <i>The Republic</i> |
| | q. Greek orator |

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

- Geographical features of Greece: (a) many lakes, (b) small amount of fertile land, (c) many mountains, (d) heavily indented coastline.
- Greek bonds of union: (a) common language, (b) common religion, (c) Olympic games, (d) common type of government.
- Democratic features of Athens: (a) jury trials, (b) election of officials, (c) broad citizenship qualifications, (d) written code of laws.
- Important places in ancient Greece: (a) Mt. Olympus, (b) Delphi, (c) Thebes, (d) Alexandria.
- Greek historians: (a) Herodotus, (b) Socrates, (c) Thucydides, (d) Xenophon.

6. Hellenistic scholars: (a) Thales, (b) Archimedes, (c) Aristarchus, (d) Euclid.
7. Victories of Alexander the Great: (a) Arbela, (b) Issus, (c) Granicus, (d) Marathon.
8. Greek successors to Alexander: (a) Ptolemy in Egypt, (b) Antigonius in Macedonia, (c) Cimon in Greece, (d) Seleucus in Asia Minor.
9. Forces of disunity in ancient Greece: (a) its geography, (b) language, (c) local patriotism, (d) differences in government.
10. Lawgivers in ancient Greece: (a) Pericles, (b) Draco, (c) Hammurabi, (d) Solon.

ESSAY QUESTIONS



1. "Democratic government in Athens during the Age of Pericles was a remarkable achievement." (a) Describe how government officials were chosen and laws made in Athens. (b) Show how Sparta's government differed from that of Athens. (c) Compare the way an Athenian boy was prepared for citizenship with the way a Spartan boy was trained.

2. Geographic conditions play an important part in the history of a people. Describe three ways in which geography influenced the history of the Greeks.

3. Many of our modern phrases have their roots in ancient history. Explain the historical origin of each italicized word or phrase that follows: (a) "He made a *laconic reply*." (b) "How *stoical* he is!" (c) "He delivered a *philippic*." (d) "He thinks he is an *oracle*."

4. Describe the contributions of the Greeks in four of the following fields: (a) drama, (b) philosophy, (c) mathematics, (d) literature, (e) architecture, (f) medicine.

5. Describe (a) three democratic features of Athens at the height of its power, and (b) three undemocratic aspects.

6. Modern Olympic games, like those of ancient Greece, attempt to promote brotherhood and understanding. Show three differences and two resemblances between the ancient and modern Olympic games.

7. Explain how each of the following contributed to the growth of democracy in Athens: (a) Draco, (b) Solon, (c) Clisthenes, (d) Pericles.

8. With regard to the Hellenistic Age: (a) give a definition of the term, (b) describe how Alexander the Great's conquests helped to bring it about, (c) describe how its culture differed from that of the Hellenic Age, (d) mention three famous people of the period, describing their contributions.

9. In what ways was Athens "the School of Hellas?"

10. Describe the origins, chief events and results of (a) the wars between the Persians and the Greek city-states, (b) the Peloponnesian Wars.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

3. Ancient Rome

Descending from the seven hills of Rome, the Latins drove out their masters, the Etruscans. Then they spread over the entire Mediterranean world, bringing an era of peace in which civilization grew and spread.

Unlike the artistic Greeks, the Romans were organizers, governors and builders. They connected their vast empire by roads which carried trade and culture to the barbarian world. They governed their various peoples with justice and human dignity.

"The grandeur that was Rome" is still evident today in brilliantly engineered aqueducts, roads and public buildings.

Time has not dimmed the greatness of the dictator Caesar; of Augustus, who made Rome a city of marble; of Constantine, who permitted Christianity to spread through the teachings of Paul and other apostles.

The voices of the orator Cicero and of the poets Ovid, Vergil and Horace, are still heard. The world's medical authority was the Roman scientist, Galen, who showed that arteries carried blood, not air.

Centuries of power and wealth, however, made the Romans soft — easy prey for the barbarians who plundered and divided the empire.

Though the Roman empire crumbled and fell, it left behind a noble heritage.



ETRUSCAN



CONSTANTINE



AUGUSTUS



COLOSSEUM



LAWGIVER



ATHENEUM



GALEN



CAESAR



BARBARIANS



APOSTLES



"The Grandeur That Was Rome"

1. Early History

Introduction. Of all the ancient peoples, the Greeks and the Romans were the most important in their achievements and in their influence on modern times. The sciences of government and law, the art of ruling a vast empire built by conquest—these were the areas in which the Romans excelled. The Greeks, on the other hand, were supreme in the intellectual fields.

How Geography Influenced Growth of Rome. The story of Rome and its growth becomes easier to understand when we see the effect of geography on it.

1. The central location of Rome in the Mediterranean world was important for expansion and trade.
2. The mountains of Italy (the Appenines) run north and south and were, therefore, no bar to the unification of the peninsula.
3. The mild climate and the existence of fertile soil made possible the growth of agriculture and the raising of sufficient crops. Thus, the people were not dependent upon other countries for their food supply.
4. The Alps, on the north, and the sea, surrounding Italy on three sides, provided protection from invasion.
5. The absence of good seaports on the eastern coast of Italy forced Rome to face west rather than east. Therefore, she was able to develop without much interference from the more advanced eastern countries until she was ready to deal with them.
6. The capital city of Rome was built on seven hills, thus providing it with natural protection. Its central location in the peninsula made it suitable as a capital.

The Peoples of Italy. In 1500 B.C. a group of Indo-European tribes called Latins entered Italy from the north and settled in Latium, south of the Tiber River. The Latins early united in a Latin League to protect themselves against common enemies; the leading city-state in this league was Rome.

The Latins' enemies included the Etruscans, a seafaring people

from the East who entered Italy about 1000 B.C. and settled north of the Tiber. In the south lived many Greeks who had colonized the "heel" and "toe" of the peninsula and the eastern half of Sicily. In the western half of Sicily were the Carthaginians from North Africa. Between the Alps and the Po River were the Gauls.

Legendary Founding of Rome. We have no historical record of the founding of the city of Rome. The legend is that it was founded by the twin brothers Romulus and Remus. These Latin princes had been thrown into a river as infants by an uncle who wanted the throne. But they were saved by a she-wolf which nursed them until they grew to manhood. Then they slew the uncle. In arguing over the name of their city Romulus killed Remus and named the city Rome. This event took place, the Romans said, in 753 B.C.

The Etruscans Rule the Latins. The Latins in central Italy were a simple, peace-loving agricultural people. In the 8th Century B.C. they were conquered by the Etruscans who ruled them for several hundred years. The Etruscans were a highly skilled people who traded extensively with the eastern Mediterranean countries. From the Etruscans the Romans learned: (1) how to use stone for building, (2) how to use the arch, (3) how to drain marshes and build sewers, (4) how to "predict the future" by divination (examining the insides of animals or watching the flight of birds) and (5) how to fight in close military formation in the *phalanx*.

The Etruscan kings ruled so harshly that the Latins revolted in 509 B.C. and pushed out the rulers. They set up their own government and called it a *republic* (or "thing of the people"). This republic lasted for 500 years.

2. The Roman Republic

The Patricians Rule Rome. The government of Rome was controlled by the nobles, or *patricians*. The executive power lay in the hands of two *consuls*, elected for one year. They and other officials were elected by the adult male citizens of the country. The *Senate*, or upper house of the legislature, was made up of about 300 patricians who served for life, and was controlled by about a dozen Roman families. The lower house, or *Assembly*, consisted of all adult males who could afford weapons. The Assembly had little power since its acts had to be approved by the Senate.

Other officials were also elected annually. *Praetors* (pree'-tors) handled the administration of justice. *Aediles* (ee'-dyles) controlled the city government. *Quaestors* (kwes'-tors) handled the financial matters. *Censors* supervised the list of citizens and later the morals of the people. In times of emergency, a *dictator*, with

absolute powers, was chosen by the Senate for a limited period of six months.

The Plebeians Are Given More Rights. The common people, called *plebeians* (plee-bee'-anz), or *plebs*, had little power. They could not run for office; they could not marry into the patrician class, and they had very little voice in the making of laws. A struggle between patricians and plebs went on for several hundred years, with the plebs threatening to secede from Rome and found their own city.

The plebs slowly won concessions. Among them were: (1) the right to elect *tribunes*, officials who had the power to *veto* ("I forbid") legislation discussed by the Senate. (2) Laws of Rome were

MASTER OF ALL ITALY. In about 400 B.C. Rome began to expand through conquest of her neighbors to the north, east and, finally, the Greeks in the south. In 265 B.C. Rome had conquered the entire Italian Peninsula.



written down (in the *Twelve Tables*, 450 B.C.) for the first time, thus giving the common people protection against patrician judges. (3) Plebs were given the right to intermarry with the patricians. (4) Public offices were opened to them. (5) Finally, the Assembly, or *Comitia*, could make laws without veto by the Senate.

Gradually, therefore, the plebeians won important rights that helped to give Rome a more representative, democratic government.

The Romans Conquer All. In the period from 509 to 265 B.C. Rome increased its territory north and south, until it controlled all of the Italian peninsula south of the Po River.

In 386 B.C. Rome was plundered and burned by the Gauls from north of the Po River. The Romans, we are told, paid a large sum of gold, and the Gauls left. Rome then conquered (1) her allies

in the Latin League, (2) other Italian tribes in central Italy, including the Samnites (290 B.C.) and (3) her old enemy the Etruscans.

The growth of Roman power frightened the disunited Greek cities in southern Italy. Some challenged the Romans, and asked for help from the mother country. Pyrrhus, King of Epirus in Greece, crossed over to Italy with a large army and defeated the Romans in several battles. However, he lost so many men that he declared, "Another such victory and I am lost." (From this comes our expression "pyrrhic victory," meaning a victory at great cost.) His efforts to unite the Greeks in Italy failed and he was finally defeated in 278 B.C. By 265 B.C. Rome was master of Italy.

Reasons for Roman Successes. There were several reasons for the successful expansion of Rome:

1. **Military Ability.** The Romans early showed their ability as soldiers. Their armies were made up of well-trained, courageous volunteers.
2. **Treatment of Conquered Peoples.** The Romans treated the conquered tribes well. Some cities were given full Roman citizenship, including the right to vote. Others were left in control of their local affairs, but had to contribute soldiers to the Roman armies. Colonies of Roman citizens with a garrison of troops were established in conquered areas. Intermarriage between Romans and natives was encouraged so that Roman civilization, the Roman language (Latin) and Roman customs spread throughout the peninsula.
3. **Divide and Rule.** It was Rome's policy to keep her allies and colonies so disunited that they could not put up a common front against her. Separate treaties and privileges were established with each one, and they were forbidden to sign alliances with each other.
4. **Roman Roads.** The absence of geographic barriers made it easier for the Romans to unite the peoples of the peninsula. They built a series of military roads radiating from Rome which enabled them to send troops quickly to any threatened area. Over these roads also moved traders, tax collectors and other Roman officials. The most famous of these roads were the Appian Way, the Flaminian Way and the Valerian Way.

3. The Punic Wars — 264-146 B.C.

Carthage Grows Powerful. While Rome was building an empire in Italy, her chief rival-to-be in the western Mediterranean was expanding commercially. Carthage, near modern Tunis in Tunisia, had been founded as a colony by the Phoenicians in the 8th Century B.C. (*Punic* was Latin for *Phoenician*.) An excellent harbor,

plus capable leadership, enabled the Phoenicians to develop a large commercial empire that controlled the trade of the West. Carthage grew wealthy as its commerce expanded. Northern Africa, the western Mediterranean islands including Sardinia, Corsica and part of Sicily, and southern Spain became part of the Carthaginian empire.

The power of Carthage lay in its large navy. Its army was made up of hired soldiers, or mercenaries. Its government was an oligarchy, ruled by a few rich traders.

First Punic War (264-241 B.C.). Carthage and Rome both wanted Sicily. In 264 B.C. a war was started for control of Sicily that lasted for 23 years. Rome's strength lay in her armies; Carthage's was on the sea. Therefore, Rome decided to become a sea power. She built four fleets which were destroyed by the Carthaginians before she mastered the art of naval warfare.

The Romans invented a new weapon, the grappling hook. With this weapon an enemy ship could be lashed to the Roman ship and the sea battle became a hand-to-hand fight on the deck. This was the kind of fighting at which the Romans excelled. After many defeats the Carthaginians were forced to sue for peace and Sicily became a Roman province.

Second Punic War (218-201 B.C.). In the next 13 years Rome seized Corsica and Sardinia and conquered the Gauls in the Po Valley. Carthage, which recovered quickly from her defeat, began to expand in Spain. Again she was challenged by Rome.

In this war the Carthaginian General Hannibal led an army of 60,000 men and several dozen elephants through Spain and Gaul and over the Alps into Italy. For more than 15 years Hannibal fought in Italy, defeating various Roman armies that marched against him. The Battle of Cannae, in 216 B.C., cost the Romans more than 50,000 troops. In spite of all his successes, Hannibal could not capture the walled city of Rome itself.

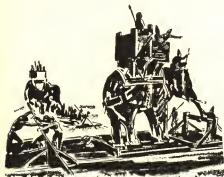
The Second Punic War was decided by the Roman General Scipio, who led an army against Spain and then against the city of Carthage. Hannibal rushed home to defend the capital. The two armies met at Zama (202 B.C.) and Hannibal suffered his first and only defeat. He escaped capture, but failed to rally new forces against Rome. Carthage was forced to give up Spain, her fleet, and most of her territory in Africa.

Third Punic War (149-146 B.C.). In the 50 years following her defeat at Zama, Carthage again built up her commercial power. This alarmed some Romans like Cato, a Senator whose speeches always ended with the warning "*Carthago delenda est!*" ("Carthage must be destroyed!")

On a flimsy excuse Rome attacked Carthage in 149 B.C. After a siege the city of Carthage was destroyed, the men killed and the women and children sold into slavery. Carthage became a Roman province.

Rome Expands in the East. Because Hannibal had made an alliance with the King of Macedonia, the Romans attacked Macedonia and defeated it in 197 B.C. The Asiatic provinces of Alexander's empire were conquered. The Greek city-states began to quarrel among themselves; Rome stepped in and ended Greek independence (146 B.C.). The Kingdom of Pergamum (the western part of Asia Minor) came under Roman control in 133 B.C.

Within 125 years of the outbreak of the Punic Wars, Rome had beaten all her rivals and had become the sole power in the Mediterranean. Her empire stretched from Spain into Asia Minor



HANNIBAL ON HIS WAY TO ATTACK THE ROMANS. When war was declared against Rome in 218 B.C., Hannibal marched his army and war elephants across mountains, rivers and lakes. His march over the Alps with 40 war elephants is an outstanding feat in world history.

How Did Expansion Affect Rome? With the elimination of her rivals Rome grew wealthy. But new problems arose—problems of governing a great empire, and ruling the many different kinds of people. In addition, new conditions at home—involving the rise of new classes, the growth of slavery and the increasing poverty of the peasant farmers—led to the downfall of the Roman Republic.

New Problems

1. **Growth in Wealth.** From the newly conquered provinces flowed a steady stream of money and slave-produced goods. These helped to enrich the upper classes of Rome as well as create a new class of wealthy merchants and traders. The tin and silver from Spain, the wheat from North Africa and Sicily, the precious gems and luxuries of the East—plus the taxes, tribute and war booty from the conquered areas—resulted in a rapid increase in the wealth of the Roman government. The group that could control the government would be able to use

this vast wealth for its own purposes. This made control a greatly desired prize.

2. *Misrule in the Provinces.* In the provinces, Rome used none of the democratic methods that had worked so well in the Italian peninsula. The conquered people were treated as subjects to be exploited to the hilt. For each province a governor, or *proconsul*, was appointed by the Senate. He generally came from the wealthy patrician class, and became even richer from the amount of money he squeezed from the people. In addition, the right to collect taxes was auctioned to the highest bidder, and the *publican*, as the tax collector was called, got as much as he could to profit from his deal. The result was bad government and corruption.
3. *Widening Gap Between Rich and Poor.* The rich grew richer through: (1) government contracts during the wars to build ships, roads, bridges or supply the armies; (2) money-lending at high rates of interest; (3) buying land from poor farmers unable to compete with the slave-produced corn and wheat from the provinces, and (4) graft in the provinces.
4. *Professional Soldiers Replace Volunteers.* Professional soldiers did not have the fighting spirit of the former citizen volunteers.
5. *Old Roman Virtues Disappear.* Soft living, corruption and pleasure took the place of hard work, patriotism and simplicity.

In order to operate their large farms, called *latifundia*, land-owners imported slaves as workers. More and more of these slaves were brought into Italy, forcing still more small farmers and peasants into unemployment. Thousands of jobless flocked to Rome.

The only thing left was their voting privilege. Unscrupulous politicians bought their votes with food and entertainment—"bread and circuses." The circuses were gladiatorial fights (between slaves or professional fighters) or chariot races held in outdoor amphitheaters.

The chief result of these changes was a widening of the gulf between the rich and the poor.

4. Civil War in Rome

The Gracchi Brothers Are Killed. The plight of the lower classes led to a movement to reform the government of Rome. In 133 B.C. Tiberius Gracchus was elected tribune of the people. He wanted to limit the amount of land a person could own and redistribute land to rebuild a farming class. His fellow patricians in the Senate called the land law robbery. They were angered when he told the plebs: "You fight and die to give luxury to other men . . . but you have not a foot of ground to call your own." Tiberius, together with hundreds of his followers, was murdered.

Ten years later his younger brother, Gaius, also was elected tribune. He wanted not only land reform but other reforms to help the poorer classes. He proposed (1) sale of grain by the government at reduced prices, (2) settling of landless Romans in the provinces, (3) building of public works to provide jobs, and (4) reform of the provincial tax collections. He tried to decrease the power of the Senate. Again the upper classes were angered. Riots broke out between the upper and lower classes and Gaius, too, with thousands of his supporters, was killed.

The Rise of Military Dictators—Marius and Sulla. The failure of the Gracchi brothers helped to divide the people still further. Two parties arose: (1) a senatorial party (called the *Optimates*) which wanted to keep the aristocrats' powers and position, and (2) a people's party (called the *Populares*) which demanded reforms and had its strength in the Assembly. In addition to this division within Rome, the provinces became restless, slaves revolted and barbarian tribes invaded the country. Stronger government was needed. This led to the rise of military dictators.

One of the first of the military dictators was Gaius Marius, a leader of the Popular party, who became consul in 107 B.C. The Assembly sent him to fight a rebellious chieftain in North Africa (106 B.C.) and Germanic invaders in north Italy (102-101 B.C.). He defeated both and was elected consul seven times. He built a professional army from the landless people of Rome, and abolished property qualifications for army service. This army was now made up of paid volunteers who would share in the booty. They were also promised pensions when they had completed their service.

In the growing struggle between the Assembly and the Senate General Lucius Sulla, an aristocrat, became the champion of the Senate. In 91 B.C. he had put down a revolt of Rome's allies who were demanding full citizenship. Though the allies eventually won their demand, the war brought Sulla to public attention. As a result, he was chosen to lead an expedition against Mithridates (mith'-ri-day-teez), a rebel king of Asia Minor. Since the Senate made the appointment, the struggle with the Assembly came to a head. The Assembly chose Marius to do the same job, and the armies of the two generals clashed in Rome. Sulla won and went off to Asia Minor.

While he was defeating Mithridates, Marius' forces gained control of Rome and killed many leaders of the Senate party. Sulla returned to Rome in 82 B.C. and avenged his party by killing off thousands of Marius' followers. He seized their property and used it to pay his supporters.

Sulla ruled as dictator for three years. During these years he restored Senatorial control over the government and then retired.

The First Triumvirate Is Formed. One of Sulla's generals, Pompey, now rose to power. Pompey put down a revolt in Spain, cleared the Mediterranean of pirates, completed the defeat of Mithridates and brought Syria and Palestine under Roman rule. However, when the Senate refused to give him full recognition or to pay his soldiers, Pompey allied himself with two other leaders to form the First Triumvirate (60 B.C.).

The other members were Julius Caesar and the rich Marcus Crassus. Pompey's soldiers, Crassus' money and Caesar's popularity brought the Roman government under their control. In 59 B.C., Caesar was elected consul. Pompey gained control of Italy and



THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT. At one time the Roman Empire stretched almost 3000 miles from the Atlantic Ocean to Mesopotamia and about 2000 miles from North Africa to the Rhine River. In this vast empire were 100,000,000 people.

Crassus was appointed leader of the eastern provinces. The next year Caesar became proconsul of Gaul (now France), an area controlled by Germanic tribes.

Caesar's Conquests. Caesar spent the years between 58 B.C. and 51 B.C. in military campaigns which brought the Gauls under Roman rule. He introduced the Latin language, customs and government to that country. He wrote his *Commentaries on the Gallic Wars*, known to every Latin student today. Twice he crossed over to Britain, but its conquest came later.

Pompey Tries to Oust Caesar. The First Triumvirate ended when Crassus was killed in Asia in a war against the Parthians (53 B.C.). Pompey, jealous of Caesar's successes in Gaul, became consul. He tried to weaken Caesar's influence by persuading the Senate to order Caesar to return from Gaul as a private citizen.

Caesar was in a dilemma. If he did as the Senate ordered, he would be powerless before Pompey. If he entered Roman territory with his army he would be violating the constitution. He hesitated at the Rubicon River, the boundary between Italy and Gaul. Then, making up his mind, he crossed the river at the head of his troops, saying, "The die is cast. I have crossed the Rubicon." Today, to "cross the Rubicon" means to reach a decision from which one cannot turn back.

Pompey retreated from Italy to Greece. Caesar chased him and defeated him at Pharsalus (48 B.C.). Pompey fled to Egypt where he was murdered. In Egypt Caesar restored Cleopatra, last of the Ptolemies, to her throne. Then he won a victory over the old kingdom of Mithridates in Asia Minor. It was from here that he sent back to Rome the famous message: "Veni, vidi, vici!" ("I came, I saw, I conquered!"). Several victories over the Senate party in North Africa, and over Pompey's sons in Spain left Caesar in sole control of Rome (45 B.C.).

Caesar Makes Many Changes. While these wars were still on Caesar began to introduce a number of reforms:

1. He distributed public lands to many Romans.
2. He granted citizenship to many provincials.
3. He reformed the government of the provinces.
4. He reorganized the Roman coinage system.
5. He adopted a public works program, including the draining of swamps and the building of roads.
6. He reformed the calendar, established a year of 365 days, with an additional day for leap years.

Caesar Is Assassinated. Caesar made himself head of Rome for life. As dictator of Rome, Caesar was feared by many republican leaders. A conspiracy developed and on the Ides of March (March 15, 44 B.C.) he was stabbed to death in the Senate house.

The Second Triumvirate. The death of Caesar left control of the government again uncertain. Caesar's heir, Octavian, formed a partnership with General Marc Antony and Lepidus, a politician. This Second Triumvirate turned upon Caesar's enemies and killed many of them. The forces of Brutus and Cassius, two of the assassins, were defeated in 42 B.C. at Philippi, in Macedonia.

Soon the Roman world was divided between Antony, who took the East and Octavian, who took the West.

Octavian Defeats Mark Antony. Octavian strengthened his position in Rome by his wise administration. Marc Antony fell in love with Cleopatra. When he divorced his wife Octavia, sister of Octavian, the break between the two was complete. In 32 B.C. Octavian gathered a large fleet and army to attack Egypt. At the Battle of Actium (31 B.C.) Antony's fleet was destroyed, and Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide. By 30 B.C. Octavian had become sole master of Rome.

5. *The Roman Empire — Its Rise and Fall*

Augustus—the Most High Emperor. The Republic of Rome had really died 100 years before Octavian, but it was finally buried by him, its first emperor. Octavian, named "Augustus" (meaning "most high") by the Senate, ruled as a dictator.

Augustus was appointed consul every year and in 23 B.C. became consul for life. In addition the Senate named him *Princeps*, or "first citizen" (from which comes the title "prince"), *Imperator*, or "successful general" (from which the word "emperor" comes) and *Pontifex Maximus*, or religious leader. He was also given the title of tribune. He could call the Senate into session, make laws and veto any of the Senate's bills.

Rome grew rich under Augustus. Peace prevailed throughout the empire—a peace that was to last almost 200 years (*Pax Romana*). He set up a sound money system, encouraged business, built new roads, extended citizenship, and organized a police and fire department.

Augustus said he found Rome a city of bricks and left it a city of marble. His reign is often called "Rome's Golden Age." Augustus started the practice by which Roman emperors were worshipped as gods and chose their own successors.

It was during Augustus' reign that Jesus Christ was born in Bethlehem, in the Roman province of Judea.

Later Emperors. Over the next 200 years the successors of Augustus introduced many changes. These brought about an increase in the Emperor's powers and expanded and unified the Empire.

IMPORTANT ROMAN EMPERORS

1. **Augustus** (30 B.C.-14 A.D.). Rome's "Golden Age."
2. **Tiberius** (14-37 A.D.) extended the imperial powers and abolished the Assembly.
3. **Claudius** (41-54 A.D.) brought southern Britain under Roman control and introduced Latin customs, literature and language

to that island. He allowed provincials to sit in the Senate, thus helping to unify the empire.

4. **Nero** (54-68 A.D.) was a tyrant who murdered his mother, his brother, two of his wives and his teacher, Seneca, a famous philosopher. Accused of setting fire to Rome for his own amusement, he blamed the Christians and had many of them killed.
5. **Vespasian** (69-79 A.D.) built the Colosseum. He sent his son Titus to conquer and destroy the city of Jerusalem in Palestine.
6. **Trajan** (98-177 A.D.) added Rumania (then called Dacia) to Roman control, bringing the empire to its greatest extent.
7. **Hadrian** (117-138 A.D.) strengthened defenses, particularly in Britain and in Central Europe between the Rhine and the Danube rivers, to keep out barbarian tribes.
8. **Marcus Aurelius** (161-180 A.D.) was the last of the "Five Good Emperors" (96-180 A.D.). His *Meditations* is a famous book of Stoic philosophy. His reign marks the end of the *Pax Romana* (27 B.C.-180 A.D.), the two centuries in which peace enabled Roman and Hellenistic culture to grow and spread throughout the Empire.
9. **Diocletian** (284-305 A.D.) restored order after the century of violence and civil wars for succession which followed the *Pax Romana*. He ruled as a true Oriental despot, with crown and throne, and ended all personal liberties. He appointed another emperor to rule with him over the western half of the empire while he governed the eastern half. This was the first step toward the final division of the Roman Empire.
10. **Constantine** (312-337 A.D.) reunited the empire under one head for a while but moved the capital from Rome to Byzantium, renaming that city Constantinople, after himself. (Today it is Istanbul.) By the Edict of Milan (313) Christianity was made legal.
11. **Justinian** (527-565 A.D.), the greatest of the early Eastern emperors. (See page 91.)

The Fall of the Roman Empire. After Constantine shifted the empire's capital to the east, the division between the eastern and western parts of the empire grew. By 400 A.D. there were two empires—the Eastern Empire and the Western Empire. The eastern half lasted until the Turks conquered it in 1453 A.D. But in 476 A.D. the last of the Roman Empire in the west was overthrown by the barbaric German (Teutonic) tribes.

For some time the weakened empire had to allow groups of these people to settle within the empire. They made good soldiers and many were taken into the Roman army—until they finally out-

numbered the Roman soldiers. They adopted Roman ways and some even held high office.

INVASION ROUTES OF THE BARBARIANS. With the fall of the Roman Empire, Huns, Goths, Angles, Saxons, Franks and Vandals overran the empire. The most famous of these barbaric invaders were Alaric the Goth and Attila the Hun.



But in the 4th Century this trickle of German invaders suddenly became a flood. Fierce tribes of Huns, feared by all, swept down out of Asia and pushed the Germans before them. The various tribes of Germans quickly overran the empire—the Goths in Italy and Greece, the Vandals in Spain and North Africa, the Angles and Saxons in Britain and the Franks in Gaul. (From the Franks comes the modern name of Gaul, France.)

Why the Roman Empire Fell. No one reason can be given for the collapse and disappearance of the Western Roman Empire. The empire had been in decline for several centuries before the last emperor, Romulus Augustulus, was replaced by the German general Odoacer (o-do-ay'-ser).

Among the reasons historians have offered are the following:

1. Political Reasons

- a. *Lack of democracy led to a decline.* Autocratic rule sapped loyalty to government and empire. In time, the citizens of Rome lost much of their great feeling of patriotism.
- b. *The empire was too large.* Division into east and west empires, though intended to strengthen it, weakened it further.
- c. *Lack of orderly succession to the throne.* This led to civil wars and increased the influence of armies in selecting rulers.

2. Economic Reasons

- a. *Growing gap between rich and poor.* A few got very wealthy on the booty from the provinces and slave labor. The majority grew poorer. Because of high taxes, former free farmers lost land to big estate owners and became tied to the estates as *coloni*, forbidden to leave. If the land were sold, they were sold with it.
- b. *Trade fell off* as increasing slavery caused increased poverty and unemployment and loss of purchasing power. Large estates became self-sufficient, producing everything they needed. Independent artisans and tradesmen were ruined.

3. Social Reasons

- a. *Wars, hunger and plagues* reduced the population.
- b. *Culture declined* as the favorite public entertainment became the sight of men and animals killing each other in the arena.
- c. *The various new religions from the East* tended to divide the empire.

4. Military Reasons

- a. Under the Republic, the *armies were servants of the state*. But under the Empire they were *masters of the state* and made and unmade emperors.
- b. *Barbarians, hired as soldiers in the armies*, could not always be trusted to fight their fellow-tribesmen across the borders. They were more interested in booty than in defending their new homeland.

How Did Rome Influence Civilization? The Romans were the greatest transmitters of culture the world has ever known. They were of a more practical nature than the Greeks, and they applied the Greek learning they gained to the everyday world.

Law—Rome's Greatest Gift to Mankind. Law came into existence over a period of many centuries. It began with the first written code of laws, the Twelve Tables (450 B.C.) and was gradually developed over a period of 1000 years to the Justinian Code in the 6th Century A.D. Incorporated into the law were rulings of emperors, decisions of judges, and ideas of the Republic. There was a great development both in private (or civil) law (which concerns the relation between individual citizens), and in public law (which deals with the relation of the citizen to the state). As Rome grew and more foreigners came under Latin rule a *jus gentium* (law of peoples), governing the rights of foreigners, also was developed. All these laws, plus the interpretations by famous jurists and lawyers, became the basis for the Justinian Code.

Roman law was just, fair and humane. In principle all persons were equal before the law. Our legal principle that an accused person is innocent until proved guilty was developed at that time. Torture as a means to secure confessions was outlawed.

The Justinian Code was used as a basis for the legal systems of most of the countries of Europe. When Napoleon wanted a new law code for France he went to Roman law for a model. The canon law of the Catholic Church today is largely Roman.

How the Empire Was Governed. The growth of Rome from a small city on the Tiber River to a vast empire stretching over three continents created problems of government and administration.

To unite this empire, which included a hundred million Greeks, Egyptians, Gauls, Germans, Britons, Arabs, Phoenicians, Syrians and others, the Romans built good roads. Roman law and language prevailed in the empire and citizenship was granted to the free men of all the provinces. The empire was divided into four prefectures, these into dioceses, and the dioceses into provinces; this assured easy control by the chief officials of Rome itself. However, an army of public officials was needed to run this government.

The "Romance" Languages. From the Latin language has come the so-called "Romance" or Roman languages of today—Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese and Rumanian. More than half of our English vocabulary comes from the Latin.

During the centuries following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, Latin remained the language of the state, the church and the learned classes all over Europe. Modern law and medicine still contain many Latin expressions.

The Romans Were Great Builders and Engineers. Roman roads, bridges, aqueducts, and dams were the finest in the world. In art and architecture, they borrowed much from the Greeks. The theaters, public baths, basilicas (oblong halls) and amphitheaters, like the Colosseum at Rome, were built on a large scale. The Romans used the rounded arch and the dome extensively.

Golden Age of Roman Literature. This period covered the last century B.C. and the first century A.D. Caesar's *Commentaries* on his campaigns in Gaul have lived as literature. The orations and letters of Cicero (106-43 B.C.) won him the title of "father of Latin prose." Virgil's (70-19 B.C.) *Aeneid* is an epic poem of Rome modeled on Homer's *Iliad*. The poet Horace (65-8 B.C.) tried to bring back the simple life of early Rome.

Terence and Plautus, the two best-known Roman playwrights, copied much from Greek drama, although the chief purpose of the Roman drama was to entertain, rather than to instruct.

Roman Historians. In the field of history, Livy (59 B.C.-17 A.D.) has given us a wonderful account of the Roman state from its beginning to the time of Augustus. Plutarch's *Parallel Lives* compares Roman and Greek heroes. Tacitus in his *Germania* is a mine of information about the barbarian Germans living outside the empire.

Romans Were Not Scientists. In science the Romans contributed little that was original. Pliny the Elder (23-79 A.D.) wrote *Natural History*, a book of all information available. But he did not check the truth of his information. It covered geography, physiology, botany, zoology and medicine — an encyclopedia of science and superstition.

In the field of medicine, Galen (131-201 A.D.) summed up Greek knowledge and added some of his own. His observations and writings were for centuries the standards for anatomy and physiology.

The Romans were greatly interested in public health and sanitation and built hospitals for soldiers and officials of the government.

Effects of Roman History. Rome has left a lasting impression upon the modern world. Through its preservation and transmission of Greek culture to the West, it performed a valuable function. Roman law is the basis for the legal systems of most of the western European countries, and through them, of the states in the Western Hemisphere. The Latin language is the parent of French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Rumanian, and has greatly enriched the English tongue.

Roman engineering and architecture have served as models for modern architects and builders. The Romans learned how to govern a vast empire, made up of many different peoples. It was also in Rome that Christianity rose and grew.

ROMAN HISTORY SUMMARIZED

1500 B.C.	Latins enter Italy.
753	Supposed founding of Rome.
c.800-509	Etruscans rule Latins.
509	Overthrow of Etruscans and founding of Roman Republic.
450	The 12 Tables—first written Roman laws.
265	All Italy comes under Roman control.
264-241	First Punic War with Carthage—Rome wins with new navy.
218-201	Second Punic War, ending with victory of Scipio over Hannibal at Zama (202 B.C.).
149-146	Third Punic War, ending with destruction of Carthage.
133	Rome becomes sole power in Mediterranean world.
133	Tiberius Gracchus elected tribune, seeks land reform. Murdered by patricians.

123	Gaius Gracchus elected tribune, later also killed.
107	Gaius Marius, champion of Assembly, elected consul.
91-82	Lucius Sulla, champion of Senate, puts down revolt of Roman allies and carries on civil war with Marius.
60-53	First Triumvirate—Caesar, Pompey and Crassus.
59	Caesar elected consul.
58-51	Caesar's campaigns in Gaul.
48	Caesar defeats Pompey at Pharsalus, Greece.
45	Caesar's victories in Egypt, Asia Minor, North Africa and Spain give him supreme control.
44	Caesar assassinated. Second Triumvirate dominated by Octavian (Augustus) and Marc Antony.
31	Octavian defeats Antony at Actium; Antony and Cleopatra commit suicide.
30 B.C.-14 A.D.	Augustan Age.
27 B.C.-180 A.D.	Pax Romana.
14-476	Later emperors (see pages 65-66).
476	Fall of Western Roman Empire.
527-565	Rule of Justinian in Eastern Empire and drawing up of Code of Justinian.
1453	Fall of Eastern Roman Empire.

ROMAN CONTRIBUTIONS

Field	Name	Significance
Law and Government	Law of the Twelve Tables, 450 B.C. Justinian Code (6th Century A.D.)	First written Roman code — fair, just and humane; equality of all; used as basis for legal systems in western Europe and U.S. Imperial idea of unity of western Europe—system of government.
Language	Latin	Romance languages (French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Rumanian) developed from the Latin.
Engineering and Architecture		Roads, aqueducts, buildings (Colosseum in Rome). Use of round arch, vault and dome.
Literature	Cicero Virgil Livy Tacitus	Orations; great orator. Aeneid; great epic poem. Annals—history of Rome. Germania—source book about the German barbarians.
	Horace	Odes; lyric poet.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. The great expansion of commerce in the Mediterranean area during the first two centuries A.D. is best explained by the (a) adoption of protective tariffs, (b) introduction of money, (c) invention of the compass, (d) maintenance of peace. 1. _____
2. A primary source for the study of the ancient Romans is (a) the Colosseum, (b) Gibbon's *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, (c) an historical atlas, (d) the Leaning Tower of Pisa. 2. _____
3. Rome won the loyalty of her conquered people by (a) directing all local affairs from Rome, (b) paying them annual tribute, (c) excusing them from supplying troops, (d) granting them Roman citizenship. 3. _____
4. A republican form of government is part of our heritage from the (a) Egyptians, (b) Romans, (c) Hebrews, (d) Persians. 4. _____
5. Which of the following nations of today occupy areas that were once included in the Roman Empire? (a) Spain and England, (b) India and Egypt, (c) Norway and Denmark, (d) China and Germany. 5. _____
6. At the time of the birth of Christ the Mediterranean world was ruled by (a) Egypt, (b) Greece, (c) Rome, (d) Persia. 6. _____
7. Which one of these authors was also famous as a statesman and military hero? (a) Cicero, (b) Caesar, (c) Homer, (d) Plato. 7. _____
8. The words "aqueduct," "forums" and "legions" were associated with the (a) Greeks, (b) Romans, (c) Hebrews, (d) Arabs. 8. _____
9. In which of the following fields did the Romans make their most important contribution to civilization? (a) science, (b) education, (c) religion, (d) law. 9. _____
10. Which is located in Rome? (a) Colosseum, (b) Alhambra, (c) Parthenon, (d) Taj Mahal. 10. _____
11. An important reason why the Roman Empire declined was that the (a) Punic Wars weakened the empire, (b) assembly became too powerful, (c) middle class was weakened, (d) slaves revolted. 11. _____
12. "Pax Romana" is a term used to indicate a (a) special type of Roman war equipment, (b) kind of sickness which plagued the Romans and led to their downfall, (c) pact between Rome and Carthage, (d) long period of peace in Rome starting with the rule of Augustus. 12. _____
13. Roman art and religion were mainly imitations of that of the (a) Greeks, (b) Etruscans, (c) Phoenicians, (d) Egyptians. 13. _____
14. Which of the following did *not* help Caesar's rise to power? (a) civil war in Rome, (b) Punic Wars with Carthage, (c) victories in Gaul, (d) victory over Pompey. 14. _____

15. The Gracchi brothers were (a) land reformers, (b) friends of Caesar, (c) generals of the army, (d) members of the Second Triumvirate. 15. _____
16. The first Roman emperor was (a) Julius Caesar, (b) Romulus, (c) Scipio, (d) Augustus. 16. _____
17. The first written code of laws in Rome was inscribed in the (a) Behistun Rock, (b) *Twelve Tables*, (c) *Decalogue*, (d) Pantheon. 17. _____
18. Ancient Carthage was in the country now known as (a) Egypt, (b) Ethiopia, (c) Tunisia, (d) Libya. 18. _____
19. "I found Rome a city of brick and left it a city of marble" is a claim attributed to (a) Augustus, (b) Caesar, (c) Nero, (d) Constantine. 19. _____
20. All of the following pairs were rivals for power *except* (a) Marius and Sulla, (b) Caesar and Pompey, (c) Octavian and Antony, (d) Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus. 20. _____
21. The second Punic War was dominated by (a) Augustus, (b) Hannibal, (c) Diocletian, (d) Remus. 21. _____
22. A Roman dictator differed from modern dictators because (a) his term of office was limited to six months, (b) he seized power by force, (c) democracy was suspended during his rule, (d) he commanded the armies. 22. _____
23. The rights of the common people of the Roman Republic were protected by elected representatives called (a) consuls, (b) tribunes, (c) censors, (d) aediles. 23. _____
24. The use of the arch was first developed by the (a) Greeks, (b) Etruscans, (c) Egyptians, (d) Romans. 24. _____
25. A serious weakness of the Roman Empire was the (a) establishment of a rich middle class to challenge the authority of the Emperor, (b) uncertainty of succession to the throne, (c) decline in literacy, (d) lack of ships. 25. _____
26. The chief rival of Rome in the western Mediterranean was (a) Carthage, (b) Spain, (c) Gaul, (d) Egypt. 26. _____
27. The great epic poet of Rome was (a) Horace, (b) Livy, (c) Cicero, (d) Virgil. 27. _____
28. Members of the First Triumvirate included all of the following *except* (a) Caesar, (b) Crassus, (c) Octavian, (d) Pompey. 28. _____
29. As a result of the battle of Actium (a) Caesar became unofficial emperor of Rome, (b) land was distributed to the veterans of the army, (c) the patrician class gained control of the government, (d) Antony committed suicide, leaving Octavian in sole control of the Roman world. 29. _____
30. Which of the following may best be compared with Demosthenes? (a) Caesar, (b) Cicero, (c) Horace, (d) Tacitus. 30. _____
31. The early Roman dictators were (a) appointed in times of danger, (b) men who seized power, (c) hated and feared, (d) selected by the citizens. 31. _____
32. The Punic Wars were fought between (a) Rome and Egypt, (b) Assyria and Persia, (c) Rome and Carthage, (d) Carthage and Lydia. 32. _____

33. The chief executive power in the Roman Republic was in the hands of (a) tribunes, (b) praetors, (c) censors, (d) consuls. 33.
34. Struggles for power in the Roman Republic lasted for several hundred years between the (a) helots and tribunes, (b) plebs and patricians, (c) barbarians and Greeks, (d) Etruscans and Gauls. 34.
35. All of the following were reforms of Julius Caesar *except* the (a) reform of the calendar, (b) distribution of public lands to many citizens, (c) granting of citizenship to many provincials, (d) abolition of the Senate. 35.



MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I

II

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1. Scipio | a. law code |
| 2. Cato | b. general in Caesar's army |
| 3. <i>Pax Romana</i> | c. leader of the patricians |
| 4. Justinian | d. <i>Germania</i> |
| 5. Virgil | e. battle of Zama |
| 6. Marc Antony | f. history of Rome |
| 7. Caesar | g. <i>Commentaries on the Gallic Wars</i> |
| 8. Sulla | h. Roman peace of two centuries |
| 9. Livy | i. tribunes |
| 10. Tacitus | j. "Carthago delenda est" |
| | k. the <i>Aeneid</i> |

TRUE-FALSE SUBSTITUTION TEST

Write T in the space provided at the left if the statement is correct; if the statement is false, substitute the correct word or phrase for the word in *italics*.

- 1. Rome faced the *east* because of the lack of good harbors on the west coast.
- 2. The *Appenine* Mountains served to protect the Italian peninsula against invasion from the north.
- 3. The power of vetoing legislation being discussed by the Senate was given to the *tribunes*.
- 4. The Romans *discouraged* intermarriage between themselves and the Italian peoples they conquered.
- 5. Between the First and Second Punic Wars Carthage secured control of *Gaul*.
- 6. Tiberius Gracchus was *supported* by his fellow patricians in the Senate.
- 7. Sulla led the plebeian class in an effort to secure a greater degree of control in the government.
- 8. The "Golden Age" of Rome occurred during the reign of *Nero*.
- 9. Under the Emperor *Constantine*, the Roman Empire reached its greatest extent.
- 10. Roman law was codified by the Emperor *Justinian*.

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. A "_____ victory" is one that is won at great cost.
2. The first written Roman code of laws was engraved on the _____ of bronze.
3. The Emperor _____ wrote a book of philosophy called *Meditations*.
4. The most important Phoenician colony in the western Mediterranean, later to rival Rome, was _____.
5. _____, or tax collectors, bought the right to collect taxes in the Roman provinces.
6. Two brothers who tried to help the landless Roman poor were _____ and _____.
7. Military, monetary and political skills were combined in the First Triumvirate in the persons of _____, _____ and _____, respectively.
8. When _____ stated, "The die is cast. I have crossed the Rubicon," he meant he could not turn back from his decision.
9. The first emperor of Rome was _____.
10. The last of the Roman emperors in the West was _____.
11. The Roman Empire was divided into eastern and western sections by _____.
12. Christianity was legalized by decree of the Roman Emperor _____.

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Show the influence of each of the following geographic features upon Roman history: (a) the Alps, (b) central location in the Mediterranean, (c) the Apennines, (d) seaports on the western coast.
2. Compare the cultures of Greece and Rome, showing similarities and differences.
3. Describe the government of republican Rome, noting the powers of (a) the Senate, (b) the Comitia, (c) the consuls, (d) the tribunes, (e) a dictator.
4. What were the chief steps by which the plebeians won greater equality with the patricians?
5. Outline the Punic Wars, under the headings (a) causes, (b) chief events, and (c) results.
6. Discuss three important reasons for Rome's success in conquering the Italian peninsula.
7. Show how the growth of territory and wealth helped to undermine the Roman Republic.
8. "Greece was idealistic and Rome materialistic." (a) Discuss the meaning of this statement. (b) From the point of view of the modern world, to which civilization do we owe the most? (In your answer include a discussion of the society, government and culture of each.)
9. How did each of the following emperors influence the history of Rome? (a) Augustus, (b) Trajan, (c) Constantine, (d) Diocletian.
10. Describe the influence on later times of (a) the Latin language, (b) Roman law, (c) Roman architecture.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

4. The Middle Ages

Hordes of barbarians invaded Europe from the north bringing violence and ignorance. The light of learning and orderly government went out. In Constantinople, the Roman emperor Justinian set down in writing for the first time, a



BARBARIAN INVASIONS



JUSTINIAN



CHARLEMAGNE



MOHAMMED

code of laws, and kept ancient cultures alive. In Africa, Mohammed formed a new religion. In Europe, Charlemagne, the greatest of the German barbarians, brought some order out of chaos.

Nations as we know them did not exist. Hundreds of warring feudal lords controlled the people who lived under their protection. In England, nobles forced King John to sign the Magna Carta establishing their civil liberties. In France, Joan of Arc rallied the soldiers to drive out the English nobles. Nations began to take shape.

The Church was the one stable power in an unstable world. Great cathedrals were built and monks painstakingly copied ancient books and taught people to read and to write. Holy Wars led thousands on many Crusades to wrest the Holy Land from the infidel Turks.

The Crusaders brought back from the East ideas of liberty that opened men's minds. The feudal system was broken down, travel was encouraged, cities began to grow. Europe began slowly and painfully to emerge from the Dark Ages.



MONKS



JOAN OF ARC



MAGNA CARTA



CRUSADES



SERFDOM



OTTOMAN TURK



New Forces in World History

1. *The Barbarian Invasions*

As we have seen (pages 67-68), the Roman Empire, weakened from within, came to an end when it was overthrown by Germanic tribes from the north. The first decisive battle was that of Adrianople (ay-dree-an-oh'-pl) in 378, when the Romans were defeated by the Visigoths (West Goths). Later, at Chalons (sha-lon') in France (451), the Visigoths joined with the Romans to throw back the Huns under Attila (att'-ih-la). The Huns gradually withdrew into Asia or mixed with the Germanic tribes—or with other barbarians of eastern Europe, the Slavs.

In 476, the barbarian General Odoacer (o-doh-ay'-ser) threw out the last Roman emperor. This date is usually taken as the ending of the Roman Empire in the west, the end of ancient times and the beginning of medieval times.

The Germans' Culture Was Primitive. The tribesmen lived by hunting and farming, and were always fighting each other. They expected to enter the warrior's heaven of Valhalla, practiced witchcraft, animal sacrifice and even human sacrifice. "Justice" was determined through *trial by ordeal* and *trial by combat*. If the accused could walk barefoot on a bed of hot coals without injury, or defeat his accuser in combat, the gods had proved his innocence. Some of these gods and goddesses are still with us in the names of our days of the week: Tiu, Woden, Thor, Frig (Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday). After the 4th Century, the Germans gradually became Christians.

Of the many tribes that invaded the Roman Empire, the most important were:

1. **The Huns**, coming from Asia, pushed the Goths into the Roman Empire. Under Attila they threatened western Europe until they were defeated at Chalons (451).
2. **The Visigoths** under Alaric (al'-a-rick). They sacked Rome in 410 and ended up in Spain. Here they founded a kingdom which lasted until the Arabs overthrew it in 711.
3. **The Ostrogoths**, or East Goths, who set up a kingdom in Italy with Ravenna as its capital. Under Theodoric (thee-odd'-o-rick) it became a center of art and learning. Conquered by Emperor Justinian in 554.

4. *The Lombards*, who invaded Italy after the death of Justinian in 565. Within a few years they had conquered most of the peninsula and set up a strong kingdom.
5. *The Angles and Saxons*, who conquered the Romans and Celts in Britain and established a number of Germanic kingdoms. The Angles gave their name to the country (England).
6. *The Vandals*, under Genseric, who destroyed much of Gaul before they crossed through Spain into Africa and set up a kingdom there. They continued to raid the Empire, including Rome (455). They were conquered by the Eastern Roman Empire in 533.
7. *The Burgundians*, who established a kingdom in southern Gaul in the Valley of the Rhone.
8. *The Franks*, who established a kingdom in Gaul that became one of the most powerful in western Europe.

Effects of Barbarian Rule

1. Collapse of universal rule, with individual kingdoms replacing the Roman Empire.

2. A decline in trade and industry as roads and bridges fell into disuse, pirates roamed the sea lanes, and coinage disappeared. Industries shut down, the need for skilled workers declined and cities lost much population as workers returned to the farms.

3. A thousand-year decline of culture and learning, as the Germans destroyed libraries and museums. The Middle Ages (500-1500) thus began with what is known as the Dark Ages (500-800).



ALARIC SACKS ROME. The Visigoths under Alaric sacked Rome for three days and moved south toward Africa. Beaten at sea, his fleet destroyed, Alaric died.

2. The Franks in Gaul

Clovis, King of the Franks. Most of the Germanic kingdoms established on the ruins of the Roman Empire did not last very long because of the continual fighting among them. An exception was the Frankish kingdom set up in the Roman province of Gaul. It became the chief force in Europe during the 8th and 9th centuries.

The king of the Franks, called Clovis, was married to a Christian princess. In 496 he became a Christian and converted his followers, thereby gaining the support of the Papacy and of the clergy in Gaul. He eliminated rival tribes in Gaul and set up his capital at Paris. Here he strengthened his authority over most of what is today France, Belgium, the Netherlands and some of West Germany.

Most of the descendants of Clovis (called the Merovingians) were weak. Real power fell into the hands of the "Mayor of the Palace" (the chief official of the government). The influence of the nobles increased during this period.

Mayors of the Palace—Martel and Pepin. In 732 Charles Martel (the "Hammer") defeated the Moslems at Tours, in France. This ended further expansion of the Moslems into Europe (see pages 88-90). In 751, his son, Pepin, also Mayor of the Palace, overthrew the last of Clovis' descendants and took the title of king. He returned the Pope's favor by conquering the Lombard kingdom in Italy and turning over the land to the Pope as Papal States. This *Donation of Pepin* was the beginning of the temporal (political) power of the Papacy in Italy. It was to last until 1870.



CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE BEFORE AND AFTER ITS BREAK-UP. At the left is Charlemagne's empire at its height. At the right the shaded areas show how it was divided among his three grandsons.

Charlemagne—a Great Ruler. Pepin was succeeded in 768 by his son Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. The fame of this important ruler rests upon his contributions in several fields:

1. **Reunification of Europe.** Charlemagne spent much of his 46-year reign (768-814) in fighting the enemies of Christendom. The most important results were:
 - a. He defeated the Slavic tribes and annexed Bohemia.
 - b. Although he failed to drive the Moslems out of Spain, he won from them a strip of land south of the Pyrenees Mountains and created the Spanish March.
 - c. The Saxons were conquered after a 30-year struggle in north central Europe.
 - d. The Lombards were defeated in northern Italy.

By these conquests Charlemagne expanded his realm. He converted the conquered pagans to Christianity—sometimes by force. As a reward for his services to the Church the Pope crowned him Emperor of the Romans on Christmas Day in 800. This act was the first important step taken by the Papacy to show that it could make and unmake emperors.

2. **Administration.** To control this large empire, Charlemagne divided it into *counties*, *duchies* and *marches* (special border districts). These were governed by counts, dukes and margraves (French, marquis). This was the origin of European titles of nobility which are still used. Charlemagne also systematized the laws for the different peoples of his empire. To check on his officials, he sent out special messengers called *missi dominici* (a clergyman and a noble) to see that justice was being done.
3. **Education.** Charlemagne encouraged monks to devote more time to teaching and studying and ordered every cathedral to create schools for the people. He founded a school for his children and those of the nobles of his court. He invited scholars from all over Europe to teach at this school.

Charlemagne's Influence on the World. (1) Charlemagne revived the idea of imperial unity, although his empire did not last long after his death in 814. (2) His cultural efforts mark the beginnings of a revival in education and learning. (3) His protection of Europe against the Mohammedans and the Slavs helped to limit their expansion. (4) His Christianizing efforts expanded the influence of the Papacy and increased the number of Christians. (5) His centralization of authority helped to put off the spread of a feudal system for a half century.

Charlemagne's Empire Is Broken Up. Charlemagne's son was a weak ruler. His three grandsons divided their father's territories

and possessions and fought among themselves. By the *Treaty of Verdun* (843) Louis ("the German") received the eastern section, which later became Germany; Charles ("the Bald") took the western section—present-day France; and Lothair, the eldest, received the imperial title and northern Italy and the narrow section between his two brothers' territories. The northern part of this middle section (called Lotharingia, or *Lorraine* in French) was fought over by France and Germany into the 20th Century.

Results of the Break-up on the World. After the bright period of Charlemagne's rule Europe fell back into the Dark Ages. Petty wars increased and the temporary revival of trade and education came to an end. New invaders—the Northmen—appeared on the scene (page 105).

3. Rise and Spread of Christianity

Jesus Christ—Christianity's Great Teacher. Jesus Christ was born in the Roman province of Judea. At the age of 30, Jesus, who had been trained in Jewish religious thought, became a preacher. His teachings offered hope for the downtrodden and became popular with the poor.

He taught that there was one God—a father to all—and that the power of God was infinite. He advocated brotherly love, preached charity and peace. He opposed war, slavery and gladiatorial contests. He emphasized the Golden Rule: *Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.*

How Christianity Grew. Christianity was only one of a number of religions practiced in the Roman Empire. Some of the reasons that helped and held back the growth of Christianity were:

Favoring the Growth

1. The appeal to the masses, with its emphasis on equality, brotherly love and salvation.
2. The Hebrew idea of the one God, which brought to the people the hope that all men might become brothers under one Father.
3. The missionary travels of the Apostles.
4. Universal languages (Greek and Roman) and excellent roads made missionary work easier.
5. The example of the faith in the new religion as shown by the early Christian martyrs.
6. Dying out of faith in the pagan religions.

Hindering the Growth

1. Opposition from other religious leaders. They feared the new religion as a dangerous rival.
2. Opposition from some Roman emperors. They persecuted Christians because they refused to worship the emperor, opposed army service, high taxes and gladiatorial contests.
3. Opposition of wealthy classes who feared Christianity's appeal to the poor and the slaves, and its emphasis on brotherhood and equality.

Christianity Becomes the Official State Religion. The new religion gained many supporters in spite of the persecutions by Nero, Marcus Aurelius (o-ree'-li-us) and Diocletian (dy-o-clee'-shan). The main steps in its final triumph were:

1. The *Edict of Milan*, issued by Emperor Constantine in 313, which granted freedom of worship to all.
2. The conversion of Constantine to Christianity. He was the first Emperor to become a Christian.
3. The adoption of Christianity as the state religion in 392 by Emperor Theodosius (thee-o-doh'-shee-us).

Thus, within 400 years, Christianity had triumphed over all other forms of religion in the Roman Empire. It was now the official religion of the state.



THE VISION OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT. In 312 A.D. Constantine is said to have seen a fiery cross in the sky. Beneath it was written in Greek, "By this sign shalt thou conquer." The next day Constantine defeated his chief enemy in battle.

How Christianity Spread. The conversion of pagans became important to the early Christian leaders. Missionaries set out to convert non-Romans. St. Patrick, St. Boniface and others helped to expand Christianity in Ireland and England and among the Germanic peoples.

Council of Nicaea (325 A.D.). To settle differences in religious interpretation, Constantine called a church council to meet at Nicaea (ny-see'-a), near Constantinople, in 325. At this meeting the *Nicene Creed* was adopted. *The Doctrine of the Trinity* (the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghost as one and inseparable) was made the official doctrine of the Church.

Division of the Church. However, religious practices and beliefs differed between the eastern Bishop of Constantinople (eventually

called Patriarch) and the Bishop of Rome who later was known as the Pope.

After the barbarian invasions of western Europe, and the breakdown in trade and communications between east and west, the two groups went their own ways. By the 11th Century, the Greek Orthodox Church had established an independent branch of the Catholic Church in Constantinople.

Activities of the Church. After the fall of the Roman Empire in the West (476 A.D.) the church dominated Western life for the next thousand years. Throughout the "Dark Ages" that followed the barbarian invasions, the Church was the center of religious and cultural activity. It was powerful in economic and political life as well.

1. **Religion.** From birth and baptism until death and burial in consecrated earth (sacred or holy), a person's life was controlled by the Church. For much of the Middle Ages Christianity was the only religion permitted in Europe. Non-believers, or heretics, were persecuted by *excommunication*. This meant that when a person was expelled from the Church, he could not take part in the rites and sacraments and was in fear of eternal punishment. Anyone excommunicated became an outcast from society. An *interdict* excommunicated a whole group of people from the Church. These severe measures maintained obedience and religious unity.
2. **Culture.** The Church was almost the only center of learning during this period. Thus, the clergy became the only educated class in Europe. In the monasteries, ancient manuscripts were copied slowly and painstakingly. Most of the people in Europe could not read or write during this period.
3. **Economics.** The Church grew wealthy from (1) collection of a tax directly from the people. Called a *tithe* (from the Anglo-Saxon *tenth*), this amounted to about 10% of income; (2) gifts of land and other wealth from kings and lords, bequests from the rich, and the possessions of those who entered monasteries.
4. **Politics.** (1) The Pope had direct political rule of a large area in Italy. The Church tried to limit feudal war through the *Truce of God* (prohibiting fighting from Wednesday night to Monday morning each week). (2) As a great landowner, the Church was to become involved in the struggles between lords during the feudal period (see pages 85-86). (3) It asserted its supremacy over lords and kings. It claimed the right to crown and dethrone emperors, a claim based on the crowning of Charlemagne (*shar'-le-mayn*) by Pope Leo III in 800 and of Otto by Pope John XII in 962. (4) The Church had

its own system of courts. It claimed the right to try all cases—religious or non-religious—involving members of the clergy.

The Church Structure. The parish was the smallest unit in the Church government; at its head was a priest (a pastor). A number of these parishes formed a *diocese*, headed by a *bishop*. Above him was an *archbishop*, who ran all the dioceses in a province. The *cardinals*, the Pope's advisors, were appointed by the Pope, the head of the Church. On the Pope's death the College of Cardinals elect a new Pope. (In 1958, John XXIII became the new Supreme Pontiff.)

Over the centuries, the Bishop of Rome established leadership over the other bishops and became Supreme Pontiff. This was due to: (1) the traditional position of Rome as the center of the ancient empire; (2) the powerful personalities of the early bishops of Rome, such as Gregory; (3) the direct succession from the Apostle Peter, of whom Jesus had said, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church." Peter was said to have founded the Church in Rome.

Priests, bishops, archbishops, cardinals and Pope were called the *secular clergy* because they lived and worked in the everyday world. Another group was the *regular clergy*—monks and nuns who withdrew from the world and lived according to special regulations.

Rise of Monasticism. Many early Christians were troubled by the disorders and weaknesses in the declining Roman Empire when it was dominated by the barbarians. They withdrew from the world into solitary retirement to lead a life of self-sacrifice and prayer. Some of these Christians decided to live and work together in settled communities. One of the earliest leaders in this movement was St. Benedict. By 529 he had brought together a number of such people and set up regulations, known as the *Rule of St. Benedict*, governing their life together.

These monks, as they were called, lived in monasteries and took vows of (1) *poverty*—they could own no possessions; (2) *chastity*—they could not marry; (3) *obedience*—to the abbot, head of the monastery; (4) *manual labor*—to work for the common good.

The Monks Contributed Greatly to Culture. In many ways the monks of the Middle Ages influenced the lives and culture of the people in Europe:

1. They kept alive and promoted learning by establishing monastic schools, copying ancient manuscripts and preserving classical Roman and Greek culture.
2. They gave alms and refuge to the poor, the sick, the orphaned and the widowed.
3. Their monasteries were always open to travelers and the wounded and sick.

4. They tilled the land and showed the way for others by practicing the best methods known.
5. Through their missionary work, they converted many pagans.

The Investiture Struggle. During the feudal period in Europe, many bishops and abbots were also vassals of lords from whom they had received land. As such, they owed certain obligations to their lords. But as clergymen they were under the rule of the Pope. This became the basis for a struggle between Popes and lords or kings. The question was: who had the right to appoint such religious leaders and invest (install) them in their jobs—jobs which involved not only religious but political powers?

MONKS PRESERVE CULTURE. In a time when few books were being produced, monks confined themselves in tiny cells in a monastery and spent their waking hours copying Greek and Latin manuscripts.



The dispute came to a head during the 11th Century, with Pope Gregory VII and Henry IV of the Holy Roman Empire as the chief contestants. Pope Gregory issued an order forbidding rulers from investing Church officials. Henry IV refused to obey this order, and Gregory excommunicated him.

Henry's followers deserted him and his political enemies rose up against him. As a result, Henry was forced to yield to the demands of the Pope. He made peace in 1077 by crossing the Alps to Canossa, in northern Italy, where Gregory was staying. There, it is said, he stood barefoot in the snow for three days until Gregory forgave him. This incident showed the power of the Church, but it did not settle the rival claims to authority.

After the deaths of Henry and Gregory, a compromise was reached in the German city of Worms. The *Concordat of Worms* (1122) provided that bishops were to be elected by the clergy and invested by the Pope. However, the Emperor had first to install them in the feudal lands he granted them. Thus he still had a voice in their selection.

Pope Innocent III Makes the Church Stronger. Under the rule of Pope Innocent III (1198-1216) the Church reached the height of its political strength. During his administration, Innocent forced the rulers of England, France and the Holy Roman Empire to

recognize his supremacy. Typical was the dispute with England.

When King John attempted to appoint his own Archbishop of Canterbury (the head of the Church in England), the Pope excommunicated him (1213) and placed England under an interdict, closing all the churches. Faced with a revolt of his nobles, John yielded to the Pope. He was even forced to surrender England to him and receive it back as a feudal fief (see page 106).

Influence of Nationalism Upon the Church. From its strong position under Innocent III, the Church gradually began to lose its power. The growth of national states—particularly in France and England—brought this about. As kings increased authority over feudal lords, it became less necessary for the Church to keep order. The kings resented (1) the Church collection of taxes, (2) the exemption of church lands from royal taxes, (3) the power of the church courts, and (4) the appointment of church officials—who also became political officials—by the Pope.

Philip IV (the Fair) of France (1285-1314), challenged the Church by prohibiting the sending of taxes to Rome. He laid his own taxes on the French clergy, increased the legal authority of the king's courts and seized control of the great wealth of the Knights Templar, a semi-monastic order. Pope Boniface VIII fought back by forbidding the clergy to pay taxes and threatening Philip with excommunication. These efforts failed.

The "Babylonian Captivity" (1305-1376). To further bring the Church under his control, Philip had a French clergyman elected Pope and, in 1305, transferred the capital of the Church from Rome to Avignon (ah-vee-nyon') in France. For about 70 years, Avignon was the home of the Popes. This period is known as the "Babylonian Captivity of the Church."

The Great Schism (sizz'm). In 1378 a rival Pope was elected in Rome, and for 40 years there were two Popes—for a while three—claiming to be the rightful head of the Church. A church council in 1417 finally appointed an Italian nobleman as the new Pope. Once again the Church was united under a single head in Rome. However, Church influence had received a severe blow.

Edward I of England also was successful in bringing the English clergy under his powers of taxation. He also declared that England was no longer a feudal possession of the Papacy.

Growth of Heresy. During this century of Church struggle people criticized the conduct and power of the clergy, and also some of the Church teachings. These early Protestants (as they came to be called) included John Wycliffe (wick'-liff) of England and John Hus (huss) of Bohemia.

Wycliffe attacked the pomp of the Church and favored a return to the simple religious life of the early Christians. He taught that

each man should be his own priest and that the Bible was superior to the Pope. To enable more people to read it, he translated the Bible into English—this was against Church policy.

His disciples, the Lollards, preached that all men should be equal and that wars helped only the rich. They were accused of taking part in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 and were persecuted by both government and Church. Wycliffe died in 1384, but 30 years later a Church council condemned him as a heretic.

EARLY PROTESTANT — JOHN WYCLIFFE. John Wycliffe translated the Bible into the common tongue and began the translation of the New Testament. The task was later completed in 1400 by his followers, the Lollards.



In 1415, John Hus was burned at the stake as a heretic. This led to a series of wars between the followers of Hus and the Church. Out of these wars came the creation of an independent Kingdom of Bohemia. Though they later settled their differences with the Catholic Church, an independent Hussite Church was established.

The Church at the Close of the Middle Ages. These events marked the end of one universal religion. The criticisms of the Church did not stop. On the contrary, they increased and by the 16th Century many Protestant groups had been organized.

4. Rise of Mohammedanism

Mohammed Found a New Religion. During the 7th Century a new religion arose in the East among the Arabs. The Arabs had little learning or culture and still worshipped many gods.

Much of Arabia was (and still is) desert land. A thin strip of fertile land edges it along the Red Sea, and here the cities of Mecca and Medina grew up.

In Mecca, a holy city to which Arabian tribesmen made pilgrimages, there lived a young camel driver named Mohammed (mo-ham'-ed) (570-632 A.D.). In Mohammed's travels with caravans he came to know many Christians and Jews. Thus, in this way, he learned of their idea of one God and felt the need for a new religion to replace the idol worship of his people.

He married a wealthy widow and became a trader. This gave him time to plan how to bring this new religion to the Arabs. He was also convinced that he had been chosen by God to become His prophet and start a new religion.

But the people of Mecca did not want to be converted and he was forced to flee to Medina. Here he was treated better. (This *Hejira* (he-jy'-ra) or "flight," in 622, marks the beginning of the Mohammedan calendar.)

Mohammed's ideas spread in Medina. By 630 he returned to Mecca in triumph and destroyed the idols. The new religion soon gained hold throughout most of Arabia, and Mecca remained the most sacred place of pilgrimage.

What Did Mohammed Teach? Mohammedanism, or Islam (iss'lām), which means "submission," is a monotheistic (one God) religion. It contains many ideas taken from the Hebrew and Christian religions. In fact, Moses and Jesus are among its minor prophets. The chief teachings of Mohammed are:

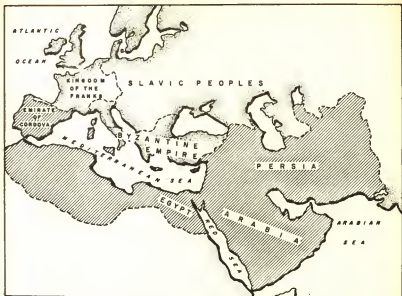
1. There is one God—Allah—and Mohammed is his prophet.
2. An Islamic "Golden Rule": "Let no man treat his neighbor as he himself would dislike to be treated."
3. Pilgrimages to Mecca, the Holy City; prayer five times a day.
4. The use of alcoholic beverages and pork is forbidden.
5. Polygamy (having more than one wife) is permitted.
6. Eternal life in Paradise for a good Mohammedan, or *Moslem*, as he is also called.
7. The need to spread the faith by the sword; to die for Islam was to insure a place in heaven.
8. Each person was his own priest—there is no priestly class in Islam.
9. Each person should be able to read and recite the Koran.
10. The giving of alms to the poor.

Mohammed's teachings were recorded in a book called the *Koran* (koh'-ran). This is the Mohammedan bible.

The position of Moslem women was very low. They were little better than slaves, uneducated and, among the wealthy, confined to their own quarters (the harem) in the home. They were forced to wear black veils on the rare occasions they went out. They shared no social or intellectual lives with their husbands, who generally had as many wives as they could afford.

Islam Builds up an Empire. The new religion grew rapidly. The conquests of the Mohammedan caliphs (kay'-liffs), or rulers, spread Islam east and west. They defeated the two strongest powers then in existence—the Persian Empire and the Byzantine (Eastern Roman) Empire. By 640 Egypt had been won from the Byzantines; the Persians had been beaten by 651.

Islam took the rest of North Africa to the Atlantic Ocean by the end of the 7th Century. Spain was won in 711, and by 732 the Moslems had pushed on to Tours in France, where they were halted by Charles Martel of the Franks. But most of the Byzantine Empire



EXTENT OF THE MOSLEM EMPIRE IN THE 8TH CENTURY. The shaded parts show the vast area occupied by the Mohammedans. Starting from Arabia, the Moslems took Palestine, Syria, Persia, Egypt, North Africa, Spain and Portugal.

remained unconquered. Its capital, Constantinople, did not fall to the Moslems until the Ottoman Turks won it in 1453.

Reasons for this rapid expansion were:

1. The absence of strong military opposition in what was left of the Roman Empire.
2. The lenient treatment of the conquered peoples. They were not forced to adopt Mohammedanism, but those who did found their taxes lower and their chances for a job better. Slaves and serfs might even win their freedom. Thus, conversions came wholesale.
3. The immediate entry into Paradise promised those who fell in battle for Islam.
4. The weakness of organized religion in the conquered countries.

By 750 Islam had built up an empire that stretched from the Indus River in India to the Atlantic Ocean. This included Spain, all of North Africa, all the countries in the Near East — Iran, Persia, Syria, Palestine and Egypt.

The Moslem Empire Begins to Decline. This vast empire began to break up near the end of the 8th Century as rival groups fought for control. Before long there were three capitals — Bagdad in

Mesopotamia, Cordova in Spain, and Cairo in Egypt. Each had its own caliph, claiming to be the successor to Mohammed.

Bagdad was the most important center. The greatest caliph of this kingdom was Haroun Al-Raschid (hah-roon' al-rah-sheed—768-809). The splendor of his court is described in the *Thousand and One Nights*.

In the 11th Century the Arab kingdoms were conquered by the less advanced Seljuk Turks, also Moslems, who had come from central Asia. It was with them that the European Crusaders (page 113) had to deal. In the 13th Century they, in turn, were conquered by the Ottoman Turks, who had also adopted Mohammedanism.

In 1350 the Ottoman Turks conquered the Byzantine provinces in Asia Minor. During the next century they spread through the Balkans until, in 1453, they overthrew the city of Constantinople and with it the Byzantine Empire itself. They attacked Hungary and took over the greater part of the kingdom. By 1529 the Turks were hammering at the gates of Vienna.

In Spain, on the other hand, Christian forces were more successful in pushing back the Moslems, or Moors, as they were called there. In 1492 the last Moorish stronghold at Granada fell and the Moslems were driven out of western Europe.

What Did the Moslems Contribute to Civilization? The culture of the Moslem world from the 9th to the 13th centuries was superior to that of Europe during this period. In many fields they contributed much to world culture.

1. **Education.** Many important universities were established by the Moslems, including those at Cordova, in Spain, and Bagdad and Damascus in the East. The works of nearly all the Greek philosophers were translated into Arabic.
2. **Mathematics.** The Moslems introduced Arabic numerals, probably borrowed from the Hindus, to replace Roman numerals. We also owe to the Moslems the idea of zero and the use of the decimal system. They also gave us algebra and trigonometry.
3. **Medicine.** Moslems added their own contribution to Greek medical knowledge. They were careful observers and good theoreticians in describing and prescribing for diseases. Avicenna (av-i-sen'-na) (980-1037) is one of the great medical figures of history. The teachers in the first European medical school, at Salerno (sa-ler'-no) in Italy, were Moslems.
4. **Chemistry.** The Moslems isolated many important chemicals, discovered how to make alcohol and prepare sulphuric and nitric acids.

5. **Agriculture.** They used terracing methods, crop rotation and improved methods of irrigation.
6. **Literature.** Famous Arabic literary works include the *Thousand and One Nights* (sometimes called *The Arabian Nights*), and the *Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam* (ka-ahm').
7. **Architecture.** A characteristic Moslem structure was the *mosque* (mosk), or temple, with graceful minarets, rounded domes and arabesques. A well-known example of Moorish architecture is the Alhambra, a palace at Granada, Spain. Many Arabic architectural ideas were carried from Spain to Latin America, and from there to the American Southwest.
8. **Handicrafts.** Moslem craftsmen were known throughout the world for their excellent work. Persian carpets and leather tooling were a specialty. Moslem swords and daggers from Toledo and Damascus were prized by Christian knights. Moslem silks, brocades and other materials were very fine. Many of the textiles we use today—damask, muslin and gauze—still keep their Arabic names.
9. **Trade.** Arab ships carried these products throughout the Mediterranean and Moslem world, to Africa and even to India, China and Japan. They brought back African wood, Chinese porcelain and Indian gems.
10. **Language.** From the Arabic language have come many additions to our language. Many of the words beginning with "al-" (meaning "the") come from the Arabic (algebra, alcohol, alkali, alchemy).

5. The Byzantine Empire

The Eastern Roman Empire. The Eastern half of the Roman Empire, with its capital at Constantinople, fought off many barbarian attacks. It remained in existence for almost a thousand years after the fall of the Western Empire. This Eastern Roman Empire, also called the Byzantine Empire, came to an end with the capture of Constantinople by the Ottoman Turks in 1453.

The Justinian Code. The greatest of the early Eastern emperors was Justinian. Under his rule (527-565) much of the Western Empire was rewon for a time. The Persians were defeated and the Slavic barbarians were driven back across the Danube. Constantinople was beautified, a better tax system was adopted and a public works program was begun. Justinian's greatest contribution was his Code of Laws which was later used throughout Europe.

The Empire Begins to Decline. The reign of Justinian was followed by a period of losses and disasters. The Lombards conquered Italy.

The Slavs took over much of the Balkan provinces. The Moslems moved into the African and Asian provinces (except for Asia Minor). The Byzantine Empire was thus cut down to a comparatively small territory—part in Europe, part in Asia—centering around Constantinople.

This empire lasted until the 15th Century. It always seemed ready to fall, yet somehow recovered. The administrative system set up by Justinian helped to keep it alive. Constantinople was strategically situated and its trade flourished. The Eastern Church, called Greek Orthodox, became more and more separated from the Roman Church. Finally, in 1054 the schism, or split, between the two became final.



CHURCH OF ST. SOPHIA. This church is an outstanding example of Byzantine architecture. It is famous for its walls, which are decorated with tiny pieces of brilliantly colored stone fitted together. The Russians were so impressed by the beauty of the Church that they copied it.

Byzantine Cultural Contributions

1. **Learning and Culture.** Byzantine culture was mostly Greek. Greek and Roman learning were preserved in Constantinople's universities. The Bible and the works of the Greek Church fathers were also studied there.
2. **Art and Architecture.** Byzantine domed churches, like Justinian's Church of Saint Sophia, were magnificent. Also outstanding were the Byzantine icons, or pictures of saints and religious scenes.
3. **Influence on the Slavs.** Byzantine culture and thought greatly influenced the Slavs. The Serbs, Bulgars and Russians were converted to Greek Orthodox Christianity and their culture became Byzantine. Their alphabet, called Cyrillic, developed directly from the Greek.
4. **Influence on the West.** Relations between Constantinople and the West were never completely cut off. Commerce continued until the capture of Constantinople by the Turks. But the Byzantine Empire performed its most important service for European civilization by helping to preserve Roman law and the masterpieces of Greek literature and art.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



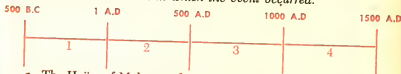
1. The Hejira is an important event in the history of the (a) Chinese, (b) Egyptians, (c) Hebrews, (d) Mohammedans. 1. _____
2. Charlemagne's rule during the 9th Century was marked by (a) a long period of peace, (b) loss of land in northern Italy, (c) the establishment of an orderly government, (d) the creation of the University of Paris. 2. _____
3. Which one of these illustrates an attempt of the medieval Church to use political power? (a) establishment of monasteries, (b) maintenance of schools, (c) establishment of hospitals, (d) proclamation of the Truce of God. 3. _____
4. The period of disorder after the decline of the Roman Empire saw the (a) development of feudalism, (b) beginning of the Commercial Revolution, (c) decline of national states, (d) beginning of the Protestant Reformation. 4. _____
5. After 476 A.D. the Roman Empire continued to exist in the East with its capital in (a) Alexandria, (b) Athens, (c) Constantinople, (d) Jerusalem. 5. _____
6. The investiture struggle concerned (a) the struggle among the heirs of Charlemagne for control, (b) the efforts of the English king to control his parliament, (c) the attempts of the French king to levy taxes on the nobles, (d) the problem of appointment to church positions. 6. _____
7. Areas which Charlemagne united within his empire are now part of (a) France and Germany, (b) England and Spain, (c) Spain and Portugal, (d) Austria and Russia. 7. _____
8. Which is the religion of the Mohammedans? (a) Buddhism, (b) Zavisim, (c) Islam, (d) Judaism. 8. _____
9. Which term did the Church apply to a person who questioned or disagreed with its official doctrine? (a) anarchist, (b) convert, (c) heretic, (d) nihilist. 9. _____
10. Which battle is significant because it checked the spread of Islam in Europe? (a) Cr cy, (b) Dunkirk, (c) Tours, (d) Waterloo. 10. _____
11. With which religion is the Koran directly associated? (a) Hinduism, (b) Judaism, (c) Christianity, (d) Islam. 11. _____
12. Which did the Arabs introduce to Western Europe? (a) tobacco, (b) tea, (c) numerals, (d) printing. 12. _____
13. Who generally set an example of good farming methods during the Middle Ages? (a) monks, (b) nobles, (c) parish priests, (d) serfs. 13. _____
14. Which of the following did the Arabs contribute to civilization? (a) aqueducts, (b) democracy, (c) calendar, (d) algebra. 14. _____
15. All of the following were barbarian tribes which invaded the Roman Empire *except* the (a) Franks, (b) Goths, (c) Carthaginians, (d) Vandals. 15. _____

16. During the barbarian invasions of the Roman Empire (a) Greek and Roman culture was preserved at Constantinople, (b) the Christian Church disappeared, (c) Constantinople was destroyed, (d) the barbarians preserved Roman civilization. 16.
17. The Christian Church (a) was immediately accepted by the Roman emperors, (b) appealed chiefly to the wealthy, (c) took over many of the duties of government during the Dark Ages, (d) had little political influence during the Middle Ages. 17.
18. Mohammedans date their calendar from the year 622 of the Christian calendar because in that year Mohammed (a) was born, (b) died, (c) fled from Mecca to Medina, (d) organized his first church. 18.
19. Excommunication was a (a) church crime, (b) church punishment, (c) church service, (d) church publication. 19.
20. France during the Merovingian period was actually ruled by the (a) king, (b) knights, (c) Palace Mayor, (d) Moors. 20.
21. A famous Moorish building is (a) the Parthenon, (b) the Pantheon, (c) St. Peter's, (d) Alhambra. 21.
22. Printing by movable type was developed by the (a) Greeks, (b) Chinese, (c) Germans, (d) French. 22.
23. The Truce of God was the name given to (a) a ritual of Christianity, (b) the temporary peace between Moslems and Christians, (c) an order of the Church restraining military activity, (d) an order calling for prayer during weekdays. 23.
24. Which of the following was *not* a contribution of the monasteries to medieval life? (a) mathematics, (b) copying of manuscripts, (c) improving agriculture, (d) examples of morality. 24.
25. Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the revived Roman Empire by (a) the Lombards, (b) the Franks, (c) the Pope, (d) the people of Spain. 25.
26. The Moslems were defeated at Tours by (a) Charlemagne, (b) Constantine, (c) Charles Martel, (d) Attila. 26.
27. St. Benedict is most famous for (a) his translation of the Bible, (b) his monastic rules, (c) his missionary work, (d) his great wealth. 27.
28. The Pope is chosen by the (a) vox populi, (b) College of Cardinals, (c) Council of Bishops, (d) parish clergy. 28.
29. The Council of Nicaea (a) was called by the Emperor Nero, (b) foreshadowed the split between the eastern and western branches of the Christian Church, (c) recognized the Bishop of Rome as the Pope, (d) created the College of Cardinals. 29.
30. Mohammedanism spread rapidly because (a) its followers fought to convert unbelievers, (b) it made no demands on its followers, (c) it was the only monotheistic religion in the East, (d) it resembled Christianity. 30.
31. Charlemagne is considered to have been a great ruler because he (a) controlled the greatest empire in the history of the world, (b) built an empire which lasted over a thousand years, (c) established equality for all his subjects, (d) brought order and stability to his kingdom. 31.

32. Rome became the center of Christianity in the early Middle Ages because it (a) was the birthplace of Jesus, (b) was the only city in which Christians had influence, (c) was believed that Peter had founded the Christian Church at Rome, (d) was centrally located between East and West. 32.
33. The Church during the Middle Ages commanded great respect by (a) making itself indispensable in the lives of the people, (b) maintaining a strong military control, (c) distributing its wealth equally among the people, (d) supporting the democratic governments against the kings. 33.
34. The Patriarchs of the Greek Orthodox Church had their headquarters in (a) Rome, (b) Constantinople, (c) Athens, (d) Budapest. 34.
35. The Palace School was (a) a new school of thought founded by Charlemagne, (b) a school for common people, (c) a training school for the clergy, (d) a school for the children of the nobles and royal family. 35.
36. The Visigoths finally settled in (a) Germany, (b) France, (c) Africa, (d) Spain. 36.
37. Each of the following barbarian tribes is correctly paired with its location within the Empire *except* (a) Angles—Britain, (b) Franks—Gaul, (c) Vandals—Germany, (d) Ostrogoths—Italy. 37.

TIME CHRONOLOGY TEST

On the following line the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 represent time intervals. Write on the line at the left of each event listed below the number that represents the time interval in which the event occurred.



-a. The Hejira of Mohammed
b. Collapse of the Roman Empire in the West
c. Capture of Constantinople by the Turks
d. Assassination of Julius Caesar
e. Charlemagne crowned Emperor
f. Investiture struggle between Pope and Emperor
g. Punic Wars
h. Expulsion of Moors from Spain
i. Christianity made a legal religion in the Roman Empire
j. Justinian was Emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire



NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. The Eastern Roman Empire lasted as long as it did because of (a) its geographical position, (b) its capable civil service, (c) its trade and wealth which enabled it to withstand conquest, (d) a long series of capable and strong rulers.

2. Members of the regular clergy included (a) priests, (b) monks, (c) nuns, (d) abbots.
3. Emperors favorable to Christianity included (a) Galerius, (b) Theodosius, (c) Diocletian, (d) Constantine.
4. Charlemagne fought against the infidel (a) Saxons, (b) Moors, (c) Slavs, (d) Franks.
5. Activities of monks included (a) missionary work, (b) encouraging heretics, (c) copying manuscripts, (d) practicing improved methods of farming.
6. Innocent III successfully concluded disputes with (a) John of England, (b) Philip Augustus of France, (c) Otto of the Holy Roman Empire, (d) Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.
7. Early Protestants included (a) John Wycliffe, (b) John Hus, (c) the Lollards, (d) Alcuin.
8. German tribes that invaded the Roman Empire included (a) Huns, (b) Vandals, (c) Burgundians, (d) Lombards.
9. Famous barbarian leaders included (a) Alaric, (b) Attila, (c) Theodosius, (d) Genseric.
10. Features of Moslem architecture included (a) minarets, (b) arabesques, (c) round domes, (d) flying buttresses.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I	II
_____ 1. Tours	a. Charlemagne's "eyes and ears"
_____ 2. Alhambra	b. investiture compromise
_____ 3. Avicenna	c. defeat of the Huns
_____ 4. "missi dominici"	d. excommunication of a nation
_____ 5. Valhalla	e. Germanic heaven
_____ 6. Chalons	f. center of Saracen culture
_____ 7. Avignon	g. defeat of the Moslems
_____ 8. Concordat of Worms	h. beautiful Indian structure
_____ 9. Bagdad	i. French capital of the Christian church
_____ 10. interdict	j. great Arab doctor
	k. example of Moorish architecture

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Using historical facts to illustrate the following statements, show that:

(a) The Christian Church preserved culture during the Middle Ages.
 (b) For many years Moslem culture surpassed the culture of Western Europe.
 (c) The Byzantine Empire helped to preserve Greek and Roman culture.

2. Concerning the medieval Church, discuss (a) the services of the monasteries, (b) the rise of Rome as the capital of Christianity, (c) Innocent III and his influence in Europe, (d) the investiture struggle between Pope and Emperor.

3. Describe three different ways in which the Christian Church influenced Western Europe during the Middle Ages.

4. Compare the teachings and practices of the Christian and Islamic religions, noting similarities and dissimilarities.

5. Describe the "Babylonian Captivity" as it relates to the Hebrews and to the Catholic Church.

6. Compare the government of Charlemagne with the Persian system of government.

7. Describe the importance of each of the following in the development of Frankish power: Clovis, Charles Martel, Pepin, Charlemagne.

8. Show, giving three specific reasons, why Charlemagne deserves the title of "Great."

9. Describe the organization of the medieval Church.

10. Explain (a) the origin of Mohammedanism, (b) its rapid growth and spread, (c) its contributions in architecture, science, mathematics, industry and literature.

11. "The rise of Christianity marks the change from the ancient to the medieval period of history."

(a) Name and explain two reasons why the Romans persecuted the early Christians. (b) Why did Christianity advance in power and influence despite this persecution? (c) What is monasticism? What are the reasons for its origin? (d) Why do we today have reasons to be grateful to monasticism?

12. Choose four of the following imaginary headlines and for each of them describe (a) the approximate time and place, (b) the reasons and circumstances behind the headline, (c) the result of the event headlined.

(1) BARBARIANS INVADE THE ROMAN EMPIRE! (2) ARABS ACCEPT MOHAMMEDANISM! (3) CHARLEMAGNE CROWNED EMPEROR! (4) HENRY DOES PENANCE AT CANOSSA! (5) MOORS HALTED AT TOURS!

13. Show how each of the following was important in the early history of the Church:

(a) the work of St. Paul, (b) The fact that there was a universal Roman Empire, (c) The attitude of Nero, (d) The attitude of Constantine, (e) The Council of Nicaea, (f) The conquests of Charlemagne.

14. Imagine yourself a Teutonic barbarian making your first raid into Roman territory. (a) What things would surprise you most as you marched through the Roman lands? (b) In what ways were the Teutonic invasions a blow to civilization? (c) Account for the ease with which the Teutons conquered the Romans.



The Culture of the Ancient Far East

Why Do We Study the Ancient Far East? The Far East, particularly China and India, is now influencing and being influenced by the West with important results for both.

More than half of the world's population lives on this part of the globe. The culture and religions of these peoples differ dramatically from those of the West. Their standards of conduct and ways of life are different, too. Their great thinkers, writers and scientists represent a civilization that is as old as ours. We must understand the Far East if we are to live together in peace.

1. China

How Geography Has Affected China. China is a vast country — one-third again as large as the United States. Its climate varies from temperate and cold in the north to subtropical in the south. There has always been a serious water shortage in many parts of the north and northwest, and China has been forced for thousands of years to irrigate the land. In the south, wearing away of the land, floods or little rainfall, have reduced the size of crops.

Just as Egyptian history is related to the Nile, and Babylonian history to the Tigris and Euphrates, ancient Chinese history revolves around the Hwang ho or Yellow River in the north, and the Yangtze River in central China. China had few relations with other peoples. She was shut off by high mountains, hot deserts and wide oceans. Most Chinese are Mongolian, but there are many Turks, Tibetans and others who have been absorbed by the Chinese.

China's Ancient History. Few relics and records of the period before 1500 B.C. have been discovered, so the ancient history of China is difficult to trace. The Chinese have, however, many legends about their early days. By 4000 B.C. people had settled in villages along the Hwang ho River. They farmed, used stone tools, made weapons (the bow and arrow), tamed some animals, and created pottery.

The Chinese began to keep written records about 1500 B.C. They developed a picture writing which is perhaps the oldest form of writing in existence. It eventually included some 40,000 characters, making the written language very difficult even for the Chinese.

China's history can be traced through a succession of dynasties (series of rulers of the same family):

*Dynasty**Important Developments*

Hsia (she-ah')
2000-1500 B.C.

The first dynasty to govern China was founded by Yu, who built roads and irrigation projects for his people.

Shang (shahng)
1500-1050 B.C.

During this period writing began; bronze and glazed pottery and a silk industry were developed.

Chou (jo)
1100-256 B.C.

These rulers invaded China from the northwest. They established a loose central government with feudal power in the hands of strong nobles. During the 5th Century Confucius and his follower, Mencius, made important developments in thought and religion.

Ch'in (chin)
256-207 B.C.

China was centralized under the military dictatorship of these rulers. The emperor Shih Huang Ti destroyed the feudal power of the nobles, established systems of taxation and weights and measures, and built the Great Wall — about 1500 miles of fortifications.

Han (hahn)
206 B.C.
—220 A.D.

This conquering dynasty built an empire that stretched from the China Sea into Central Asia, from Korea to Indo-China. Trade with western Asia was developed, and Chinese fruits, silks and spices began to appear in Rome (1st Century A.D.). Buddhism was introduced from India. A civil service system was adopted for the selection of government officials. Paper was first made.

T'ang (tahng)
618-906

After 400 years of internal wars, China was reunited under this dynasty. T'ai Tsung became emperor in 627 and introduced many reforms in education and government. China's boundaries were extended, alliances and treaties with neighbors brought peace, and prosperity was stimulated by trade and industry. Silks, jade and porcelain were traded with India, Persia, Arabia and Japan.

Sung (seong)
960-1280

A period of disorder following the collapse of the T'ang dynasty was ended by the Sung. The culture of China at this time was far superior to that of Europe, which was going through its Dark Ages (see page 78). However, the Sungs were strong only in southern China.

Mongol Rule
1259-1368

The Mongol nomads from central Asia, under their great leaders, Genghis Khan and his grandson, Kublai Khan, conquered China and ruled for a century with their capital at Peking. The Venetian trader, Marco Polo, visited Kublai Khan. Trade with Europe was started.

Ming
1368-1644

The Mongols were overthrown and a native Chinese dynasty beautified Peking. Trade with Europe was encouraged. From the Chinese Europeans learned of gunpowder, silk making, porcelain, jade, tea, playing cards.

Manchu
1644-1912

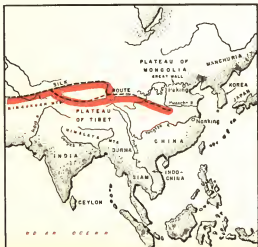
The fierce, non-Chinese people from Manchuria took over China, Mongolia, Korea, Indo-China, Tibet and eastern Turkestan. For a century and a half China prospered under Manchu rule. However, pressure from the West in the 19th Century led to their overthrow in 1912, and the birth of the Chinese Republic.

Chinese Philosophy and Religion. During the last part of the Chou period (1100-256 B.C.), wars between rulers of provinces brought hard times to the people. Such periods of suffering have often produced great philosophers — people who have tried to understand life and figure out a way to lessen life's trials. China's great thinkers have influenced all the people of the Far East.

1. **Lao-Tse** (lou dzuh). This philosopher, who lived in the 6th Century B.C., taught that (1) men should be left alone to work out their own lives with the fewest possible laws of government; (2) men should make their own lives simple and desire nothing, but should submit to all that comes in life. These teachings became the basis of *Taoism* (tou-ism), a religion that is followed by millions in the Far East today.
2. **Confucius** (551-479 B.C.). The greatest philosopher of China is best known for his ethical teachings — his ideas about the right way to live. Confucius taught that human nature was good, not bad. Men should be kind, tolerant and love their elders and ancestors. His Golden Rule was: "Do not do to others what you would not have others do to you." Many of his teachings have come down to us in a book called *Analects*. Education, good manners, right morals, respect for others, love of tradition, obedience to one's parents — these became the Chinese code of behavior and the religion called *Confucianism*.

Cultural Contributions. The Chinese developed literature, poetry, history and philosophy that ranks with the best in the world. The T'ang period produced great poets like Li Po. Literature flourished

CHINA AND INDIA. The dotted lines in the map show the "Silk Route," along which long lines of Chinese caravans traveled to bring their rich textiles to the Persians.



during this period because of the invention of *printing*. Books could be produced cheaply in great numbers. China made paper during the 1st Century A.D. Learning was not, however, widespread because the Chinese alphabet was difficult to master.

The delicate glazed pottery and porcelain of the Chinese have never been equalled. Their cups, bowls and dishes were known in Europe as "chinaware." Great music and paintings have also been produced by the Chinese.

Science and Invention. Chinese civilization between 1000-1500 A.D. was far superior to that of Europe in the same period. Chinese inventors discovered the art of making paper and ink. ("India" ink is really Chinese ink.) They printed from movable type — wooden blocks with cut-out raised characters. They used a compass to guide them at sea, made gunpowder (first used for firecrackers), manufactured silk, and used irrigation and farming techniques that were far in advance of European methods.

2. India

How Geography Affects India. India is as large as all of Europe, excluding Russia, and has over 400 million people. The high mountains to the northeast shut India off from Tibet and western China. The northwest frontier has been the historic route for land invasions of India. The British conquered India from the sea, for India is surrounded on three sides by water.

Many parts of India are very fertile, while others are semi-desert with not enough rainfall. The climate is hot except in the highlands.

History of India. The Ganges and Indus River valleys in northern India were the home of early civilization. Less than 50 years ago, archaeologists discovered ruins along the Indus River that date back to about 4000 B.C. At Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa these ruins indicate a civilization as advanced as those in Egypt and Mesopotamia of the same period. Bronze and copper were the chief metals; buildings were made of fired brick, and they had a picture writing which has not yet been deciphered. The people farmed, wove cloth and made jewelry. Their drainage systems show a knowledge of engineering. Around 1500 B.C. this civilization, for some reason, ended suddenly.

Much of our knowledge of ancient Indian history comes from religious writings called the *Vedas*. They were written in Sanskrit, the literary language of India, and this period is called the Vedic Age. Two important poems, the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* are comparable to the poetry of the Homeric period in Greece.

For hundreds of years white-skinned *Aryan* invaders ruled India, setting up small kingdoms governed by rajahs. To protect themselves against the native dark-skinned Dravidians, the Aryans

established the caste system which fixed a person's place in life from the day he was born.

Alexander the Great of Macedonia ruled for a short time over northern India. After his death the Greeks were expelled and a great Hindu dynasty was established by a native ruler called Chandragupta Maurya (Mah-oor-ya). Under his grandson, *Asoka* (273-232 B.C.), one of the greatest rulers in all history, this empire included almost all of India. Asoka, tired of warfare and converted to Buddhism (see page 102), was a model ruler. He was tolerant in religion, generous to his people, wise and kind. He spread Buddhism throughout India, into Ceylon, Tibet, Burma and Siam.

After Asoka's death his empire broke up into rival warring states. For 1500 years, India was divided. The *Gupta* (Goop-tah) dynasty (320-467 A.D.) reunited northern India and gave it its most peaceful and prosperous period before modern times. Trade developed with the West and with Burma, Java, Sumatra and Indo-China. The Hindu and Buddhist religions spread in these Eastern countries.

The Moslems invaded India in the 12th Century. In 1500 Mohammedans from central Asia, led by a family called the *Moguls*, set up a strong kingdom in northern India. The greatest of these Mogul rulers was *Akbar* (1556-1605). He conquered central India, created a strong and efficient government, was tolerant toward religion, and promoted business and commerce.

The Mogul rulers were great builders of mosques, tombs, palaces and forts. One of the most beautiful tombs in the world is the Taj Mahal, the tomb which a Mogul emperor built at Agra in memory of his favorite wife.

After the 17th Century the Mogul Empire fell apart. Indian princes set up small kingdoms and fought with each other. This rivalry gave the French, English and Portugese traders an opportunity to increase their influence. In 1763 the English defeated the French for control of India.

Indian Religions and Philosophy From India have come two great religions — Hinduism and Buddhism.

1. **Hinduism.** The basic thought behind this religion is obtaining release from evil. Man can escape from the sins of life only when his soul becomes pure and perfect.

The caste system is an important part of Hinduism. The process of soul-perfection begins in the lowest caste. Upon death, the soul is born again in a person of higher caste. If the duties of his caste are carried out faithfully, his soul after many rebirths will become perfect and will merge with the soul of the chief god, Brahma.

Originally there were four castes — *Brahmin* (the priests), the *warrior* caste, the *farmer and tradesman* caste, and the

lowest, the *Sudra*, the servants of the others. With the passage of time, these four castes have been divided according to occupations into thousands of castes. The "untouchables" are the very lowest. Contact with them by higher castes requires rigid purification. The caste system created a society in which every person knew just what his life work was and how to do it.

The Hindu believes that all life is sacred. He respects all animals — the cow, in particular, is held sacred. Hindus generally eat no meat. They believe that (1) the world is evil; (2) at death the soul passes into other bodies, either human or animal; (3) if one accepts caste duties, the soul will be purified; (4) one should have reverence for all animals; (5) by prayer one can escape from the evils of the world.

2. **Buddhism.** The founder of this religion, Gautama (563-483 B.C.), at the age of 30, gave up his wealth and position to study the right way to live. His followers called him *Buddha* (meaning "The Enlightened One").

Buddha taught that human life is full of evil and suffering which can be avoided by having only desires that are good. Through an "Eightfold Path," his followers were taught that they should not hate, steal, lie, gossip or have impure thoughts.

For a thousand years Buddhism rivaled Hinduism in India. It died out in India later on, but spread to China and other countries of the Far East where it grew strong and continues to be one of the world's great religions.

Indian Culture. Much literature, both poetry and prose, was written in India. Kalidasa, who lived in the 6th Century A.D., was a poet and playwright whom many consider equal to William Shakespeare. Animal fables and fairy stories show originality and imagination.

Religion influenced the art and architecture of India. The temples have walls, roofs and columns covered with figures and floral designs, and they have terraces that seem to reach into the sky.

Indian Science. In mathematics the Indians were the first to use the zero, the decimal point, the minus sign and the so-called Arabic numbers (really an Indian invention). They made much progress in algebra and in chemistry. During the Gupta period (320-467 A.D.) they led the world in dyeing, tanning leather, soap and glass making.

Our word "cotton" comes from the Arabs who copied it from the Indians. Other textiles like "chintz," "cashmere" and "calico" first came from India. Trade grew with China and the eastern Mediterranean countries. Indian culture spread across the East into Java, Indo-China, China and southeast Asia. Indian civilization made a rich and important contribution to the world's arts, sciences and philosophy.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST



Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. The Great Wall was built in (a) Rome, (b) India, (c) China, (d) Egypt. 1. _____
2. Printing by movable type was developed by the (a) Greeks, (b) Indians, (c) Chinese, (d) French. 2. _____
3. Marco Polo visited China during the reign of (a) the Manchus, (b) Kublai Khan, (c) T'ai Tsung, (d) Genghis Khan. 3. _____
4. The language of the Aryans who invaded India was (a) Latin (b) Greek, (c) German, (d) Sanskrit. 4. _____
5. The Indian whose teachings were most successful in China was (a) Asoka, (b) Manu, (c) Gautama, (d) Kalidasa. 5. _____
6. The philosopher who wrote the Golden Rule was (a) Kalidasa, (b) Lao-Tse, (c) Li Po, (d) Confucius. 6. _____
7. What we know of ancient India comes from the (a) *Mahabharata*, (b) *Ramayana*, (c) *Vedas*, (d) *Koran*. 7. _____
8. The founder of Buddhism was (a) Gautama, (b) Akbar, (c) Asoka, (d) Brahma. 8. _____

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. The _____ River was to ancient China as the Nile was to Egypt.
2. Chinese history is traced through the rule of families called _____
3. Feudalism was introduced into China by the _____ dynasty
4. The greatest of the Mogul rulers in India was _____
5. The _____ mountains separate India from Tibet.
6. Obedience to one's parents was taught by _____
7. Indian culture developed first along the banks of the _____

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in Column II that best fits each item in column I

I	II
_____ 1. Taj Mahal	a. follower of Confucius
_____ 2. Shang dynasty	b. Indian epic poem
_____ 3. Asoka	c. Mongol ruler of China
_____ 4. Genghis Khan	d. writing developed in China
_____ 5. Mencius	e. founder of Taoism
_____ 6. <i>Ramayana</i>	f. convert to Buddhism
_____ 7. Lao-Tse	g. beautiful Indian temple
	h. The "Enlightened One"

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Describe China's contributions to world culture in: (a) religion and philosophy, (b) science, (c) inventions.
2. Show how each of the following contributed to the development of Indian history and culture: (a) Asoka, (b) Akbar, (c) Hinduism, (d) Mogul rulers.
3. Outline the chief ideas of the Buddhist and Confucianist religions.



The Feudal System

1. Origins of Feudalism

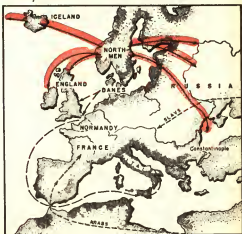
How Did the Feudal System Arise? Feudalism (fyu'-dal-izm), a system of landowning based upon military service, began to develop in western Europe during the 8th and 9th centuries and reached its full height in the 12th and 13th centuries. Then it began to decline.

The reasons for the rise of feudalism include:

1. The weakness of the governments in western Europe and failure to provide security for their people.
2. The need for local nobles to take on the job of providing security, replacing the king as keeper of order.
3. The renewed invasions of Europe—by the Northmen from Scandinavia, the Magyars from the East, and the Moors from the south.
4. The decline of trade and the scarcity of money. This made it necessary to pay debts and taxes with produce or labor.

Early Development of Feudalism—(1) Landowning. During the harsh tax period of the declining Roman Empire many freemen had to give up their land to rich landowners and had to continue working it as tenants. They paid their "rent" in produce and labor. Thus, land became concentrated in the hands of a few rich nobles.

THE NORTHMEN RAID EUROPE. These daring raiders generally made quick strikes, seized rich booty, destroyed cities and returned home. They occupied some areas for long periods of time.



(2) **Military.** The military part began in dealings with the barbarian invaders. There were bands of warriors who swore allegiance to their chief and fought for him. In return they were given food, clothing and other necessities.

Why Feudalism Grew in Europe. Many of the rights and privileges of government began to pass from the king to the nobles. Since they were strong enough to take on the job of keeping order, they began also to take over the government of their own districts.

2. The Relationship Between Lord and Vassal

The Vassal Gets a Fief. Land was the most important form of wealth in Europe during this period. Agriculture was the basic form of earning a living. Thus, ownership and control of land were important features of the feudal system.

In theory all land was owned by the king. However, the king kept only a small part of it for his own use. He let out most of it to *vassals*—nobles who promised military and other services in exchange. The land that was given to the vassal was called a *fief* (feef). The ceremony in which the vassal pledged loyalty to his lord was called *homage*.

The land received as a fief by the vassal could also be subdivided and let out again as fiefs to *sub-vassals* who pledged the same services. This process was called *sub-infeudation*. Quite often a person would be both lord and vassal at the same time, or a vassal of several lords.

Thus the Count of Champagne was the vassal of the French king for part of his lands, and of nine other lords for the rest. Sometimes a vassal had lords who fought each other; then he would have to take sides.

The vassal did not own the fief, but he had inherited the right to its use. The fief could not legally be taken away from him so long as he fulfilled his obligations.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

of the Lord	of the Vassal
1. Protection of the vassal.	1. Service in the lord's army (forty days a year).
2. Provision of courts of justice.	2. Certain payments ("aids"); for the lord's ransom, if necessary; for the knighting of his eldest son; and for the dowry of his eldest daughter.
3. Guardianship of a vassal's minor heirs.	3. Payment by vassal's eldest son when he inherited the fief, called a "relief."

3. *Life in the Feudal State*

The King Had Limited Control. Every man, noble or peasant, owed obedience to some immediate superior. The king was at the head of this system, but he had limited powers. There was no state system of taxation, coinage, laws or law courts, and no national army. The king depended for his revenue on the income of his own lands. He had no control over the majority of the people.

Within his own fief, the noble ruled. He held court, levied taxes (often road tolls), issued his own currency. He could raise an army made up of his vassals.

Feudal Warfare Was Not Very Dangerous. The causes of war included quarrels over boundaries, the terms of vassalage (which were unwritten), family feuds, personal hatreds, greed and boredom. This fighting was not very dangerous; the heavily armored knights were more likely to be captured and held for ransom than killed. Also, there was the hope of booty or additional land. It was the peasants who suffered most, since it interfered with their work and destroyed their crops. As we have seen (page 83), the Church attempted to limit this warfare through the *Truce of God*.

The Manorial System. The manor included castle, village and all the land of a lord's estate. Here the lord and his family, his servants, his fighting men and his serfs lived and tilled the land. Conditions in France, described below, were similar in other parts of Europe.

At the center of the manor stood the lord's castle. Around it were the huts of the peasants, forming the village, which included a mill, a blacksmith's shop, a small church and a house for the parish priest. Surrounding the village were the cultivated fields, the meadows and woods. About one-third of the cultivated land was set aside for the use of the lord. It might be all in one section or scattered throughout the manor. The rest of the land was parceled out among the peasants of the village. The meadows, wasteland and woods were common land, used by both the lord and the peasants.

Open Field System. Unlike the modern farm, the medieval farm was not fenced in. The manor lands stretched out in great open fields. Each peasant was given several strips, scattered about so that each peasant had both good and poor land. The strips were separated only by thin ridges of grass.

Three Field System. The open fields were divided into three parts. One part was for the spring planting of oats, barley and peas; another was for the fall planting of wheat or rye; the third lay fallow—unplanted—to restore fertility. Each year the fields were rotated, so that each field lay fallow once in three years. This system prevented the land from becoming exhausted.

How Did the Peasants Fare? The peasants, or serfs, who worked in the fields were tenants, holding their lands from the lord in return for services and dues. Each serf had to:

1. Work on the land of the lord a certain number of days each week (generally three)
2. Give the lord a certain part of the crops he raised on his own lands (generally half).
3. Pay for the use of the lord's mill and the lord's oven where he baked his bread.

The peasant lived in a small thatched hut on a bit of land on which he grew vegetables and kept a few chickens or geese. His tools were crude: wooden plows, sharp-pointed sticks and sometimes an axe. His house was poorly furnished, with little light or heat. His hours in the fields were long, his crops barely enough to keep him alive. Furthermore, he was always threatened by famine and disease.

The serf was neither a freeman nor a slave. Unlike a slave, he could not be sold and was entitled to protection and justice from his lord. Yet he was not a freeman; he could not leave the land and he owed obligations to the lord.

The Manor Was a Little World in Itself. There was little commerce; most of the peasant's needs—food, clothing and tools—were produced on the manor. The village had its own shoemakers, blacksmiths and weavers. The produce of the fields was mostly consumed in the manor; the surplus, if any, was traded to other manors for such needs as salt and iron.

The Feudal Lord Had to Protect His Dependents. The feudal lord's castle was not only a home but a fortress. It was large, with stone walls thick enough to withstand the weapons of the day. Within its walls there were storehouses for food and weapons. There was also room to shelter all the defenders and their horses.

The castle was usually built on a hill and surrounded by a *moat* (a trench filled with water), over which there was a drawbridge. The main tower, called the *donjon*, had a gateway protected by a *portcullis* (an iron grating which could be dropped suddenly in case of attack). Since the favorite method of capturing a castle was by starving it into surrender (the walls were too thick to break, and too high to climb), it was important that the castle be self-sufficient.

The castles were dark and gloomy inside—cold in the winter, damp in the summer. After the 11th Century, when trade with the East was opened up, tapestries and rugs brightened the rooms a little.

For their own amusement, the nobles engaged in *jousts* or *tournaments* in which mounted knights tried to unseat each other with lances. The nobles also hunted; this became their exclusive right. The peasants were not permitted to touch even the rabbit eating their crops.

Other sports included backgammon and chess. Few nobles read for pleasure. Books were scarce, and few knew how to read.

The Lord's Lady Had Few Legal Rights. The household was run by the lord's wife, or lady. She supervised the making of clothing and furnishings, the cooking and cleaning. She visited the peasants on the estate, caring for the sick. When the noble was away, she managed the fief. She had few legal rights. On the lord's death, his eldest son inherited the manor (*primogeniture*).



THREE CLASSES OF MEDIEVAL SOCIETY. In the Middle Ages people were divided into three social classes. On the top level were the nobles and second the clergy. On the lower level were the serfs, who performed the work for the higher classes.

Chivalry—the Code of Knightly Behavior. Training in this code began early in life for a noble's son. First he was sent to another noble's house where, as a *page*, he was taught polite manners. At 14 he began to train in the arts of war. He acted as a *squire* to the lord, serving him at meals, keeping his armor in good condition and riding with him on the hunt or into battle. At the age of 21 he was ready for knighthood.

After he had been knighted by his patron (a light tap with the flat of a sword), the youth was ready to join the privileged class of warriors. He was expected to be courageous, loyal, liberal and

courteous. It was his sworn duty to protect women, Christianity, and the weak. He must do nothing to bring disgrace on himself, his family or his class.

4. Feudalism Begins to Decline

Feudalism in Western Europe began to decline gradually after the 13th Century. In France it ended in 1789; Prussia, 1808; Austria, 1848 and in Russia, 1861.

Various factors led to this decline:

1. The Crusades (pages 113-114) weakened feudalism by removing many nobles and enabling kings to increase their power.
2. The growth of commerce made self-sufficiency of the manor less necessary.
3. The growth of commerce led to the rise of towns and gave the serfs another place to earn a living and a chance to become free. (Living in a town for a year and a day brought a serf his freedom.)
4. The merchant class which grew up needed a strong national government to provide safe conditions for trade.
5. The introduction of gunpowder made the armored knight and the fortified castle useless.
6. The Black Death plague of the 14th Century reduced population. This enabled the serfs who survived to get better terms for their work because of the labor shortage.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. Which one of these was most characteristic of the feudal period?
(a) foreign trade, (b) scientific farming, (c) class system, (d) national states. 1. _____
2. Under feudalism the land granted to a vassal was called (a) a manor, (b) a fief, (c) a suzerain, (d) an aid. 2. _____
3. A characteristic of agriculture on a medieval manor was the use of
(a) contour plowing, (b) enclosures, (c) migrant workers, (d) the three field system. 3. _____
4. Serfs were (a) merchants, (b) attached to the soil, (c) free labor, (d) colonists. 4. _____
5. The unit around which the economic life of the feudal period revolved was the (a) university, (b) church, (c) city, (d) manor. 5. _____
6. In feudal days (a) roads were greatly improved, (b) kings were powerful and nobles were weak, (c) trade and towns almost disappeared, (d) wars and fighting disappeared. 6. _____

- 7 The feudal serf was better off than the Roman slave because (a) he was free at 21, (b) he could not be sold off the lord's land, (c) he could move from manor to manor, (d) he received wages. 7.
8. Under the three-field system of agriculture (a) fertilizers were used on one field, (b) part of the land was left fallow, (c) one-third of the land was reserved for the lord's eldest son, (d) part of the land was reserved for the Church. 8.
9. The promise made by a knight to be the lord's man was known as (a) relief, (b) homage, (c) vassalage, (d) enlistment. 9.
10. For extra protection a castle was usually surrounded by a (a) bridge, (b) forest, (c) moat, (d) three-field system. 10.
11. The Black Death weakened feudalism because it became less profitable to continue the institution of (a) chivalry, (b) serfdom, (c) trial by jury, (d) slavery. 11.
12. Which of the following would have the closest connection with the code of chivalry? (a) serfdom, (b) the Renaissance, (c) jousts and tournaments, (d) the self-sufficiency of the manor. 12.
13. The vassal's duties to his lord included all of the following *except* (a) military service, (b) payment of aids, such as a dowry or ransom, (c) payment of reliefs, such as inheritance fee, (d) acting as a guardian for a lord's heirs. 13.
14. A medieval castle contained all of the following *except* a (a) printing press, (b) donjon, (c) moat, (d) drawbridge. 14.
15. The order of training to become a knight was (a) squire, page, knight, (b) knight, page, squire, (c) page, squire, knight, (d) none of these. 15.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I

- 1. primogeniture
- 2. sub-infeudation
- 3. vassal
- 4. homage
- 5. fief
- 6. serf
- 7. feudal aid
- 8. manor
- 9. three-field system
- 10. Truce of God

II

- a. one who held land in return for military services rendered
- b the estate of a feudal lord
- c. rotation of crops
- d. open field arrangement
- e. act of fidelity
- f. breaking a fief into smaller grants
- g. Church effort to reduce feudal warfare
- h. right of the first born to the whole of his father's estate
- i. ransom payment
- j. grant of land that was part of the feudal agreement
- k. peasant bound to the soil



COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. The organization of society which followed the breakdown of the Roman Empire was called _____.
2. The land granted to a vassal was called a _____.
3. A man who was a vassal to another vassal was called a _____.
4. The peasants who tilled the soil were called _____.
5. The estate of a feudal lord was called a _____.
6. The feudal code of behavior was called _____.
7. The first step in becoming a knight was to be a _____.
8. A Church effort to protect the person and property of peasants, merchants and churchmen was called _____.
9. A trial of strength between two knights was called a _____.
10. The medieval farm was not fenced in, leading to the creation of the _____ system.



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Feudalism developed throughout a large part of Europe during the Middle Ages. (a) Describe two conditions that produced feudalism. (b) Discuss briefly two causes for the breakdown of feudalism.
2. Describe one way in which feudalism in medieval Europe benefited (a) the nobility and (b) the common people.
3. Show how each of the following contributed to the decline of feudalism: (a) the Crusades, (b) the Black Death, (c) the growth of towns.
4. Show how feudalism influenced the life of the Middle Ages in the following areas: (a) ways of making a living, (b) defense and war, (c) political life, (d) administration of justice, (e) social life, (f) social classes.
5. "Feudalism as a system of government and life was a result of the collapse of the Roman Empire and the onrush of new barbarian invasions." (a) Define feudalism. Why is it called a system of government and life? (b) Why was it necessary for people to accept this system of government and life? (c) How did the feudal system of government help the people during the Middle Ages?
6. Compare life on a medieval farm and life on a modern American farm as to (a) tools and machines used, (b) methods of farming, (c) amount of crops raised, (d) self-sufficiency.
7. Describe the relations which existed between the lord and his vassal. What services did each perform for the other? What obligations did each assume to the other?
8. During feudal times, ownership of land was of great importance. (a) Explain why land was so important. (b) Contrast the life of a serf with the life of a lord.



Europe from the 11th to the 14th Centuries

1. *The Crusades*

The Crusade—a Religious War. During the 11th Century the Seljuk Turks controlled much of the Mohammedan lands in the Near East, particularly the Holy Land of Palestine. Unlike the former Arab rulers, the Turks showed no respect for Christians. They closed the sacred places to Christian pilgrims and persecuted them cruelly. They also threatened to overrun the entire Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire. In desperation, the Byzantine emperor at Constantinople appealed to the Pope at Rome for help against the Turks.

In 1095 Pope Urban II, at a meeting of churchmen and nobles in Clermont, France, called for a religious war against the Moslems.

Why Did the Crusaders Join Up? There were many reasons why nobles, knights, merchants and peasants answered the call to recover the Holy Land from the infidels: (1) The prime motive was religious. (2) The landless knights, and the younger sons who lacked land, saw a chance to get some wealth. (3) Italian merchants were interested in setting up safe trading posts in the Near East under Christian governments. (4) Warriors looked forward to a fight that was blessed by the Church.

In addition, (5) lords hoped the smaller lords would be killed; the smaller lords dreamed of fiefs without overlords. (6) The king hoped to remove his rivals. (7) The peasants wanted a change in their dull lives and a chance to share some of the riches of the East.



CRUSADERS SET OUT TO FREE THE HOLY LAND. When the Turks held the Holy Land they restricted the movements of Christians. Peter the Hermit, an a pilgrim to the Holy Land, heard a voice which urged him to get help to free the suffering Christians. This was the beginning of a series of Crusades, most of them unsuccessful.

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(8) Serfs who went could be relieved of some feudal obligations. All over Europe recruits joined up—rich, poor, even women and children.

There Were Many Important Crusades. For 200 years Europe fought the Moslems in a series of Crusades.

Crusade	Leaders	Results
First (1096-1099)	Such powerful nobles as Raymond of Toulouse, Robert of Flanders, Godfrey and Baldwin of Bouillon.	Conquered Jerusalem; nobles created feudal estates for themselves in Palestine and Syria. In 1187 Jerusalem was retaken by Moslems under Saladin.
Second (1147-49)	Emperor Conrad II and the French King Louis VII.	Failed to capture the city of Edessa, taken by the Moslems in 1144.
Third (1189-91)	Richard the Lion-Hearted of England, Emperors Philip Augustus of France and Frederick Barbarossa of Germany.	Attempt to recapture Jerusalem failed. Richard won Saladin's permission for Christian pilgrims to visit Jerusalem.
Fourth (1204)	Organized by Venetian merchants against fellow Christians at Constantinople to control trade with Moslems.	Crusaders plundered Constantinople and set up their own king. This Latin Empire lasted until 1261
Later Crusades (1217, 1228, 1270)		All failed to capture Jerusalem. Not until World War I did the Moslems lose Palestine.

The Crusades—"Most Successful Failures in History." The Crusades had a great effect on the history of Europe. Some of the results were:

1. They weakened feudalism through the death of many nobles and the freeing of many peasants.
2. They increased the power of the kings at the expense of the nobles.
3. Trade between East and West was stimulated. Crusaders brought to the West such new products as spices, silks, satins and new foodstuffs.
4. Towns began to grow with increased commerce.

5. More gold and silver came into Europe. Barter began to be replaced by trade based on money.
6. The classical culture of Greece and Rome was reintroduced into western Europe from the East.
7. The power of the Church grew.
8. The wealth of European commercial centers, particularly the cities of Italy, increased.

2. Trade and Commerce Begin to Expand

There Was Little Trade Under Feudalism. During the feudal period trade in Europe was discouraged by: (1) continuous warfare which made it dangerous to ship goods over any great distance; (2) absence of good roads; (3) lack of money; (4) invasions of Europe which cut western Europe off from the Mediterranean



TRADE ROUTES OF THE MIDDLE AGES. The Mediterranean became a virtual monopoly for northern trade was dominated by the Hanseatic cities, southern trade by the Italian cities.

and, hence, all contact with world trade; (5) the self-sufficiency of the feudal manor; (6) the fact that there was no protection against bandits.

Venice Takes Steps to Revive Trade. In the revival of European commerce the first steps were taken by Venice, which gradually built up trade with Constantinople. The establishment of European trading posts in the Holy Land after the First Crusade increased this trade. Genoa and Pisa became leading rivals of Venice for this commerce.

In northern Europe, Flanders (now part of Belgium) became a center of commerce. After the Norsemen had settled down from their invasion (page 105) and turned to legitimate commerce, trade increased in the Baltic and North seas. Wine and other products were exchanged for wool from England or wax, furs and amber from the Baltic.

From these two centers in the south and north of Europe, trade spread gradually inland. Towns on the Lombard plain and in Tuscany began to develop trade relations with the seaports. Southern France and Christian Spain were brought into this trade by the 12th Century. From there and across the Alpine passes from Italy, merchants followed roads and rivers into France and Germany. Here they met the northern merchants coming down the rivers from the Flemish coast. For a long time the plain of Champagne, halfway between Italy and Flanders, was a meeting place for merchants of all lands.

Medieval merchants risked loss of their goods because piracy was common both on land and sea. When possible merchants would travel together along the few, poor roads in caravans for mutual protection.

Traveling Fairs Stimulate Trade. These difficulties led merchants to pool their goods and offer them for sale at selected meeting places. Such *fairs* were held every year.

Through such traveling fairs, the goods of the East were made available to people in the interior of Europe. These fairs created more demand for these products and in turn led to an increase in trade between East and West. They also stimulated production of goods in the West to exchange for the luxuries from the East.

3. *Growth of Towns in Europe*

What Were the Results of Increased Trade?

1. The revival of commerce led to the growth of towns in Europe. Merchants could not be traveling all the time; they needed a permanent base of operations. A town not only provided such a base but gave the merchants mutual protection.

2. Annual fairs were soon inadequate. Customers wanted new products the year around. For this reason, too, a settled location was necessary.
3. Foreign commerce stimulated local trade and broke down the self-sufficiency of the manor.
4. Commerce created skilled industry. Someone had to make the clothes, weapons, armor, and so forth, that the merchant sold to satisfy the demand for better goods. Skilled workers began to appear and they too needed a central place to work, produce and sell their goods.

Sometimes such cities were built at the crossroads of important highways of commerce, such as where two rivers met. Sometimes they began as groups of homes around the walls of strong castles (to which the inhabitants could retreat if attacked). These became known as *burgs*, and the inhabitants as *burghers*.

These burgs, as they grew, gradually absorbed the original castle. It then became necessary to build a larger wall for the protection of the whole town.

How Were the Cities Governed? The burghers were originally controlled by the local lord. His restrictions and taxes often interfered with freedom of trade. As the burghers grew in wealth many bought their freedom from the lord. Others had to fight for it.

This freedom from control was given in the form of a charter which regulated the relations between the townsman and the noble. Government was in the hands of a council and a number of other officers—burghers of the town elected by their fellows. The council levied taxes (direct taxes on income and indirect taxes on the sale of goods), maintained defenses and public works, and was responsible for justice.

The right to take part in the government was limited to men of property. It was a privilege which they defended against the poor of the town and against outsiders.

The council also regulated the town markets and the collection of market tolls placed on neighboring peasants who sold their produce there.

What Did Medieval Towns and Cities Look Like? A medieval town was a crowded, unsanitary place. Pigs roamed the narrow, unlighted streets and cows and horses were often kept in sheds next to the houses. Garbage was thrown into the streets, to be washed away by the next rain. Plagues and epidemics were common.

Since most of the houses were made of wood, there was always the danger of fire. There were no fire, police, sanitation or water supply departments.

The typical medieval city was walled and surrounded by a moat,

which could be crossed only by a drawbridge. It had gates which could be shut in case of attack. A few towns had regular methods of street cleaning, a pure water supply, even public baths. Others, like the prosperous towns of Italy and Flanders, had large public buildings.

The population of medieval cities was not large, by modern standards. Palermo, the second largest city in Europe (next to Constantinople), had a population of about 500,000. Paris had 200,000, Venice slightly less. The average city numbered about 50,000. The population was swelled by runaway serfs, who became free if they lived in a town for a year and a day.

The church or cathedral was the center of life in a town or city. They were very beautiful buildings and were created in the spare time of the artisans and workers. These edifices are admired even today as great works of art and architecture.

Towns Band Together for Protection. The Lombard League of towns in northern Italy joined forces against the Holy Roman Empire. Sometimes they united for commercial advantages. The Hanseatic league of towns in northern Germany controlled trade in the North and Baltic seas for several hundred years.

How Did the Rise of Towns Affect Civilization? The growth of the towns had far-reaching effects on European civilization. Among them were:

1. A new form of wealth was created—money. Land was no longer the major form of wealth.
2. A new social class, the *burgher* or *bourgeoisie*—or middle class—became more and more powerful because they were accumulating fortunes.
3. The peasant's life improved. Greater demand for his products from townspeople increased his income. He was now able to find work and thus buy more goods than before.
4. The nobles' power began to decline as that of the merchants' rose.
5. The power of the monarch also rose. The king found a valuable ally in the new middle class—the nobles were the common enemy of both. The king needed money to maintain a strong central government; money could be raised by taxing townsmen. The burghers needed a strong central government to protect trade and keep peace; they were willing to pay for it.
6. The growth in wealth led to a desire for more learning and culture.
7. Bringing together many people in towns and cities resulted in exchanges of ideas.

4. The Merchant and Craft Guilds

Merchant Guilds Are for Businessmen. The merchant guilds were associations to which all the merchants of the city were forced to join. In the early days these guilds included the artisans who made goods and sold them directly to the consumer. People who were not members of the guild could not buy or sell at retail within the city. Every effort was made to prevent unfair competition. The guilds fixed prices, regulated quality of goods, weights and measures. The merchant guilds established a "just price" that would bring the merchant a fair profit.

Craft Guilds Are Mainly Industrial. The craft guilds consisted of workers in a given trade or craft (like weavers, carpenters, hat-makers, tailors) who manufactured or prepared goods for sale. These were somewhat like our trade unions, as this table shows:

Medieval Craft Guilds	Modern Trade Unions
<p>Purposes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Regulated hours and wages of labor. 2. Limited supply of workers by fixing the number of apprentices. 3. Fixed prices of goods. 4. Determined the quantity and quality of goods. 5. Tried to prevent cheating of the consumer or of the worker. 6. Provided for widows and orphans of members. 7. Created entertainment on holidays. 8. Had some voice in city government. 	<p>Purposes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improve the conditions of work for members. 2. Reduce hours of work. 3. Increase wages. 4. Secure local, state and national laws to better labor's living standards. 5. Many unions have financial benefits for sick or dead members and their families. (Note that the modern trade union has little to do with prices, quality, or quantity of goods produced, and has no direct voice in the government.) 6. Some unions provide educational activities for their members, housing, scholarships, pensions.
<p>Membership</p> <p>Limited to skilled workers in a particular craft. Strict methods of training — apprentice 7 years; journeyman (or worker) — a free worker eligible for membership; masters — the most skilled worker who could train apprentices, hire journeymen and own a shop.</p>	<p>Membership</p> <p>Most unions today admit all types of workers — skilled and unskilled, although older unions limit membership to skilled workers. Unions attempt to limit membership by other means — high union dues, or initiation fees. Some unions still train their own young members as apprentices.</p>

The Good and the Bad of the Guild System. The guild system helped to maintain good quality and honest values for the buyer. It guaranteed a fair living to the guildsman, who had little chance of becoming either wealthy or very poor. On the other hand, the close supervision and regulations held back invention or progress of any kind. The guilds put down all competition from those who were not members.

5. The Revival of Learning

The Rise of Universities. Before 1100 monasteries were the chief centers of learning and culture (page 84). By the end of the 12th Century universities had been established at Bologna, Paris and Oxford. The University of Paris drew students from all parts of Europe. Oxford was created about 1167 by a group of English students who had studied in Paris. Cambridge was founded about 1200.

What Were the Early Universities Like? The university was organized somewhat like the guild. It was governed by those holding Master of Art degrees. The "apprentices" were the students; the "journeymen" those with bachelor's degrees, who were permitted to teach certain elementary courses while they studied for the master's degree. If he wished to train for law, medicine, or theology, the student would follow a further course of study leading to the degree of doctor.

How the Students Were Taught. Classes were held in a hall with the students sitting on the straw-covered floor while the teacher lectured. This was the sole method of instruction. Books were scarce and expensive, since they had to be copied by hand.

The professor read slowly and the student took down what he said almost word by word. Then the professor would explain each sentence, the student again copying down what he said. His own notes would serve as his textbook if and when he became a teacher. All instruction was in Latin.

What the Students Learned. The course of study consisted of the *trivium* (grammar, rhetoric and logic) and the *quadrivium* (arithmetic, astronomy, geometry and music). Logic and philosophy became more important by the 13th Century, furnishing a method of study for medicine, law and theology. The University of Salerno specialized in medicine; Bologna in law, and Paris in theology.

The "Schoolmen" Teach Scholasticism. Theology was the "Queen of the Sciences" in the Middle Ages, for it was the science that explained religion and showed the way to salvation. The use of the logic of Aristotle to prove the truth of Church doctrines was called *scholasticism*; those who taught it were "schoolmen."

Among the most famous schoolmen was Peter Abelard, whose work *Sic et Non* (*Yes and No*) listed contradictory arguments for and against Church doctrines; Lombard's book, *Sentences*, became the standard textbook of theology (study of religion). St. Thomas Aquinas, in his *Summa Theologia*, used Aristotle's logic to prove the truth of Christianity.

Scholasticism did not encourage research and experiment; it stressed learning by repetition, often without attention to meaning. It discouraged original thought by leaning upon ancient authorities such as Aristotle and Galen. Yet it did sharpen the thinking of students by requiring careful reasoning.

False Sciences Lead to True Sciences Medieval science was not based on the scientific method of observing and experimenting. Alchemy (the false science that led to chemistry) was studied in the hope that base metals could be changed into gold. Astrology (the false science that led to astronomy) was used to foretell the future from the position of the planets and stars.

Most scientists were held back by superstition and false information. An exception was the Franciscan monk, Roger Bacon (1214-1294), who believed in the need to investigate and experiment.

Literature Begins to Appear in Native Languages Little writing took place in the Middle Ages. Very few people could read and write and books were difficult to produce. The most important works of this period were religious books.

Many poems were composed for the nobles. These were *chansons de geste*, or tales of heroic deeds (such as *The Song of Roland*); lyric poetry recited and sung by *troubador minstrels* in France and *minnesingers* in Germany; and poems relating legends of knights.

The Romance of the Rose, a satire on medieval life, was written in the 13th Century. The greatest work of literature of this entire period was *The Divine Comedy*, by Dante Alighieri (1265-1321). Dante was the first major writer to break away from Latin and write in the language of his countrymen—Italian.

Gothic Architecture Is Introduced The religious expression of the people of the Middle Ages reached its height in the Gothic architecture of the medieval Church.

REIMS CATHEDRAL. This magnificent Gothic cathedral is known as the royal coronation church of France in the city of Reims. The most famous coronation was that of King Charles VII in 1429, following Joan of Arc's expulsion of the English.



The *Romanesque* (meaning Roman-like) type of architecture featured solid walls, thick columns and rounded arches. The cathedral of Pisa with the leaning tower is an example of this type of architecture.

In the 12th Century the *Gothic* style became a favorite of architects. This style introduced the addition of arches called "flying buttresses" and the Gothic (pointed) arch, which could support heavy roofs and spires. Stained-glass windows, set in stately arches, let light stream into the interior. The façade (front) of the cathedral was ornamented with a great deal of sculpture in the form of saints, angels, prophets, gargoyles, plants and animals.

Outstanding examples of the Gothic style are the cathedrals of Notre Dame and Rheims in France, and Westminster Abbey in England.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. An important effect of the Crusades was the (a) separation of church and state, (b) permanent recovery of the Holy Land from the Mohammedans, (c) start of the feudal period, (d) stimulation of trade between the West and the Orient. 1.
2. During the Middle Ages, Bologna, Paris and Cambridge became famous for their (a) membership in the Hanseatic League, (b) universities, (c) palaces, (d) revolts against feudal lords. 2.
3. A great Christian philosophy was developed by (a) Charlemagne, (b) Richard the Lion-Hearted, (c) St. Louis, (d) St. Thomas Aquinas. 3.
4. An important reason for the decline of the guilds was that they (a) favored the just price, (b) were more concerned with profit than with quality of products, (c) failed to adapt themselves to changing economic conditions, (d) spent most of their funds for social services. 4.
5. The chief purpose of the medieval guilds was to (a) preserve for members the control of their own trade and commerce, (b) encourage expansion of trade on a national scale, (c) serve as welfare agencies for the sick and unemployed, (d) recruit labor to build cathedrals. 5.
6. Which one of these was an important factor in the development of trade and commerce in Europe after the 12th Century? (a) a uniform monetary system, (b) annual fairs in large cities, (c) a good system of highways, (d) mass production techniques. 6.
7. An example of a Gothic cathedral is (a) Notre Dame, Paris, (b) St. Mark's, Venice, (c) St. Peter's, Rome, (d) St. Sophia, Istanbul. 7.

8. Which one of the following written languages was most generally used in western Europe during the Middle Ages? (a) Italian, (b) French, (c) Latin, (d) Greek. 8. _____
9. The growth of trade in medieval Europe resulted in (a) invasions of German barbarians, (b) the rise of a middle class, (c) the decline of banking, (d) an increase in the power of the nobles. 9. _____
10. The medieval trade guilds were similar to modern trade unions in their policies regarding the (a) use of the strike in collective bargaining, (b) establishing of specific membership qualifications, (c) setting of prices for products, (d) regulation of trade. 10. _____
11. An important result of the Crusades was that (a) the Turks permanently lost Palestine, (b) serfdom declined in western Europe, (c) the Roman and Greek churches were united, (d) Italy was united into one nation. 11. _____
12. Flying buttresses, ribbed vaultings and stained glass windows are characteristic of (a) Gothic architecture, (b) Romanesque architecture, (c) Byzantine architecture, (d) Norman architecture. 12. _____
13. St. Thomas Aquinas is famous because he (a) organized the Jesuits, (b) was a great philosopher of the Catholic Church, (c) expressed ideas that helped cause the Reformation, (d) helped capture the Holy Land from the Moslems. 13. _____
14. Which type of architecture is characterized by round arches, thick walls and small windows? (a) Gothic, (b) Byzantine, (c) Romanesque, (d) Greek. 14. _____
15. It was the purpose of the Crusades to (a) seize the Holy Lands from the Turks, (b) give a young knight an opportunity to show his skill and courage, (c) enable men to get rich quickly, (d) open up the East to trade. 15. _____
16. All of the following were characteristic of the Middle Ages *except* (a) feudalism, (b) printing, (c) Gothic cathedrals, (d) widespread use of Latin. 16. _____
17. All of the following were characteristic of medieval towns *except* (a) serfdom, (b) craft guilds, (c) merchant guilds, (d) narrow streets. 17. _____
18. All of the following were medieval attempts to regulate business *except* (a) excommunication, (b) guild system, (c) just price, (d) ban against usury. 18. _____
19. The merchant guilds practiced (a) monopoly, (b) free enterprise, (c) democracy, (d) research. 19. _____
20. The growth of a merchant class contributed to the development of strong central governments by their support of (a) the kings, (b) the serfs, (c) the local lords, (d) the people. 20. _____
21. The city whose trade increased most and quickest as a result of the Crusades was (a) Paris, (b) Danzig, (c) London, (d) Venice. 21. _____
22. Just price (a) meant a price fixed by the guilds, (b) meant the cost of production plus a great deal of profit, (c) meant whatever

- an article could be sold for on the open market, (d) is the basis for price fixing today. 22.
23. Which one of the following is *not* true? (a) medieval guilds were both merchant and craft guilds, (b) before becoming master you had to be a journeyman, (c) medieval craft guilds are just like the modern trade unions, (d) the guilds had benefit funds for widows and orphans. 23.
24. The following facts are true of medieval universities *except* (a) they were organized like guilds, (b) all instruction was in Latin, (c) research and experimentation were encouraged, (d) logic and mathematics were required subjects. 24.
25. The chief method of instruction in the medieval universities was the (a) Socratic dialogue, (b) lecture, (c) research on problems, (d) reading in textbooks. 25.

FACT-OPINION TEST

The following statements are not all based on fact. Some are merely opinions. In the space provided write F if you can identify the statement as a fact; write O if you recognize it as an opinion.

- 1. The guilds compelled members to abide by many regulations.
- 2. Life in a medieval city was probably less interesting to its inhabitants than was life in the cities of ancient Rome.
- 3. Richard the Lion-Hearted was a more successful leader than Saladin.
- 4. Latin was the universal language of the medieval universities.
- 5. The serfs living under the feudal system were happier than are working men under our present system.
- 6. The Crusades stimulated trade and the growth of towns.
- 7. Charlemagne was a greater man than Pope Gregory the Great.
- 8. The medieval church performed educational and governmental as well as religious functions.
- 9. The knights were the fighting men of the feudal period.
- 10. Learning in the medieval universities was more intense than in modern universities.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. *Knighthood*: (a) King Arthur, (b) chivalry, (c) tournaments, (d) apprentice.
2. *Feudalism*: (a) serfdom, (b) manor, (c) plantation, (d) feudal dues.
3. *Medieval labor*: (a) apprentices, (b) craft guilds, (c) labor unions, (d) journeymen.
4. *Medieval social classes*: (a) clergy, (b) nobility, (c) serfs, (d) bourgeoisie.
5. *Medieval towns*: (a) night watchmen, (b) gas lights, (c) narrow streets, (d) protecting walls.
6. *Crusades*: (a) flintlock guns, (b) knights, (c) Jerusalem, (d) Holy Sepulcher.

7. *Gothic architecture*: (a) flying buttresses, (b) round domes, (c) stained glass windows, (d) pointed arches.
8. *The Trivium*: (a) grammar, (b) rhetoric, (c) arithmetic, (d) logic.
9. *Scholars*: (a) Abelard, (b) Peter Lombard, (c) St. Thomas Aquinas, (d) Dante.

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER TEST

Number the items in each of the following groups so that they are in chronological order.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| A. Pope Urban II | D. Norse invasions of Europe |
| Pope Innocent III | Moorish invasions of Europe |
| Richard the Lion-Hearted | Germanic invasions of Europe |
| B. University of Paris | E. journeyman |
| University of Cambridge | apprentice |
| University of Oxford | master worker |
| C. knight | F. craft guilds |
| squire | merchant guilds |
| page | trade unions |



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the economic status of (a) a serf on the feudal manor, (b) a skilled worker under the guild system.
2. Discuss each of the following in relation to life in Europe during the Middle Ages: (a) farming on a feudal manor, (b) reasons for the growth of towns and cities, (c) functions of the medieval guilds.
3. State and describe the important part each of five of the following played in the culture of western Europe during the Middle Ages: (a) the guilds, (b) the Church, (c) universities, (d) growth of towns and cities, (e) architecture, (f) trade with the East.
4. Explain why both Mohammedans and Christians considered the Crusades to be "holy wars." What motives, other than religious, led men to go off to fight in the Crusades? (Note particularly the cities of Venice and Constantinople in your answer.)
5. Describe the training or education which a boy or girl of the Middle Ages would have had so that he or she might become one of the following people: (a) a knight, (b) a silversmith, (c) a housewife, (d) a baker.
6. In later medieval days trade and towns grew together. (a) Discuss two ways in which towns and trade influenced the life of the area in which they grew. (b) Show how the trade of a modern city could influence life in that city today.
7. Although the Crusaders failed to achieve what they set out to do, their efforts were not a total loss. (a) What was the goal the Crusaders had set for themselves? (b) What were the gains made by the Crusaders' experiences in the East?
8. Compare a medieval university with a modern university in three of the following aspects: (a) subjects studied, (b) entrance qualifications, (c) extra-curricular activities, (d) methods of instruction.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

5. The Renaissance

Out of superstition and ignorance, the whole western world gradually awakened to the excitement of scientific discoveries, explorations, literature and art. Petrarch taught men how to understand and enjoy life. Gutenberg's printing



PETRARCH



GUTENBERG



COPERNICUS



GALILEO

COLUMBUS



press made books and knowledge available and Copernicus and Galileo startled the world with their scientific theories.

It was during this period, too, that Rembrandt, da Vinci and Michelangelo created beauty on canvas and in stone and Shakespeare created beauty with words.

The world was astir. Marco Polo returned from India with stirring tales of wealth; Magellan's brave sailors rounded the Cape and Columbus voyaged to the New World.

Men began to question old traditions; some were not willing to accept blindly the teachings of the Church. Luther led a Protestant movement that spread through northern Europe and the Church began to reform itself. Brave Jesuit missionaries went to the New World to spread Christianity among the Indians.

Kings became more powerful than nobles. Henry VIII broke with the Pope and made himself head of the Church of England. Businessmen became the powerful middle class.

The Renaissance was, indeed, a rebirth of man's intellectual and civil liberty.



JESUITS



LUTHER



SHAKESPEARE



HENRY VIII



REMBRANDT



The Renaissance

What Is the Meaning of the Renaissance? The word "renaissance" is a French word meaning *rebirth*. The great period of human history (1450-1700) known as the Renaissance (ren-e-sahns') began as a rebirth of interest in classical (Greek and Roman) literature, art and learning. It went on to develop a new spirit of questioning and experimentation in literature, art, music, law, architecture, science and trade. Above all, a new attitude arose toward man.

Man believed that his life on earth was important and could be pleasant. He realized that he was intelligent and capable of understanding and managing the affairs of his life. Finally, he concluded that each man deserved a share of the satisfactions of life. The Renaissance marked the period of change from medieval to modern times.

What Caused the Renaissance? (1) The growth of trade in the 12th to 14th centuries created a wealthy class, particularly in the city-states of Florence, Venice and Genoa. These people had the time to become educated and to dabble in the arts. (2) As towns grew, people were brought closer together and ideas were more easily exchanged. (3) From the Crusades had come more contacts with the East. The superior Moslem culture now began to appear in Europe.

The Renaissance flowered first in Italy because: (1) the eastern cultures entered Europe first through the Italian trading ports; (2) Italy, once the center of the old Roman Empire, inherited its culture; (3) the wealthy merchants, bankers and churchmen of the Italian cities encouraged writers and artists.

How the Renaissance Spread. The Renaissance spread throughout Europe, into Holland, Germany, France, Spain and England. Though its first interest was in art and architecture, it led to new developments in science, religious reforms and literature and made new geographic discoveries.

The invention of printing with movable type, credited to Johann Gutenberg (goo'-tenn-berg), a German, in about 1450, helped to spread the new knowledge. William Caxton (1422-1491) learned printing, translated popular medieval romances, and issued in 1477 the first dated book printed in England. Aldus (1450-1515), an Italian printer, published fine editions of Greek, Latin and Italian classics. Books on both religious and worldly subjects were being printed in French, Italian, Spanish and English.

What Were the Achievements of the Renaissance?

1. **Language.** Latin, the language of the intellectuals, was replaced by the languages of the common people. More and more writers turned to their national tongue to reach a larger audience.

Dante, as we have seen, led the way with his *Divine Comedy*. Chaucer wrote the *Canterbury Tales* in English and Cervantes wrote *Don Quixote* in Spanish.

2. **Art.** Some of the world's greatest artists lived and worked during this period. These tables show some of their achievements:

Name and Dates	Nationality	Contributions
Ghiberti (ge-behr'-tee) 1378-1455	Italian	Built famous bronze church doors in Florence.
Donatello (don-a-tel'-loh) 1386-1466	Italian	Sculptor of figures on horseback.
Da Vinci (dah vin'-chee) 1452-1519	Italian	"The first modern man." Contributed to painting, sculpture, mathematics, anatomy, botany and engineering. His best-known paintings are the <i>Mona Lisa</i> and the <i>Last Supper</i> .
Michelangelo (my-kel-an'-jel-oh) 1475-1564	Italian	Architect, sculptor, painter. Works include statues of <i>David</i> and <i>Moses</i> and painting of <i>The Last Judgment</i> .
Titian (tish'-an) 1477-1576	Italian	Artist famous for use of color, particularly red. <i>Assumption of the Virgin</i> is one of his best-known paintings.
Raphael (raf'-ay-el) 1483-1520	Italian	Best-known works are <i>The Sistine Madonna</i> and <i>Transfiguration</i> .
Cellini (chel-lee'-nee) 1500-1571	Italian	Famous silversmith. His autobiography is well known.
Velasquez (va-lath'-kayth) 1599-1660	Spanish	Realistic painter of historical and religious scenes and portraits. <i>The Surrender of Breda</i> — one of his best known.

Hals (hahls) 1581-1666	Dutch	Artist famous for portraits, such as <i>Laughing Cavalier</i> .
Rembrandt (rem'-brant) 1606-1669	Dutch	Known for use of color. His more than 500 paintings include <i>Night Watch</i> and <i>The Anatomy Lecture</i> .
Rubens (roo'-benz) 1577-1640	Flemish	Chiefly a religious artist. Works include <i>The Descent from the Cross</i> .
Van Dyck (van dike) 1599-1641	Flemish	Noted portrait painter.
Durer (doo'-rer) 1471-1528	German	Artist, engraver and wood carver. His <i>Adoration of the Magi</i> is a masterpiece.
Holbein (hohl'-bine) 1497-1543	German	Noted for wood engravings and portraits. Work includes <i>The Virgin and the Child</i> .

3. *Literature*. Some of the writers of this period produced manuscripts that are studied and dramatized today and probably will be enjoyed until the end of time. Among the outstanding figures of this age were:

Name and Dates	Nationality	Contributions
Dante (dan'-tee) 1265-1321	Italian	"Father of Italian poetry." His <i>Divine Comedy</i> is an epic poem describing a trip to the hereafter.
Boccaccio (boh'-kaht'-cho) 1313-1375	Italian	"Father of Italian prose." Author of <i>The Decameron</i> .
Machiavelli (mah-kyah-vel'-li) 1469-1527	Italian	Political writer. <i>The Prince</i> became a guide book for tyrannical rulers.
Villon (vee-yon') 1431-1485	French	Poet and romantic vagabond.
Rabelais (rab-ee-lay') 1494-1553	French	Satirical writer, author of <i>Gargantua</i> .
Montaigne (mon-tayne') 1533-1592	French	Author of witty, well-written essays.
Cervantes (ther-vahn'-tays) 1547-1616	Spanish	In <i>Don Quixote</i> he ridiculed customs and manners of the feudal age.
Camoens (kam'-o-enz) 1524-1580	Portuguese	<i>The Lusiad</i> , story of important incidents in Portuguese history.

More (mohr) 1478-1535	English	His <i>Utopia</i> describes an ideal state.
Johnson (jon'-s'n) 1573-1637	English	Dramatist, author of <i>Volpone</i> .
Shakespeare (shake'-speer) 1564-1616	English	Dramatist and poet. Wrote <i>Hamlet</i> , <i>Julius Caesar</i> , <i>Macbeth</i> and others.
Spenser (spen'-s'r) 1552-1599	English	Romantic poet. Author of <i>The Faerie Queen</i> .

4. Scientific Discoveries. With new discoveries and inventions man began to want to know more about the earth on which he lived. Greek achievements in science were revived and developed further. Man, in his search for the scientific laws that govern all, tried to investigate the *causes* to solve human problems.

The development of the *scientific method* was of greatest importance. Conclusions were based upon observation and experiment rather than on superstition, popular belief or the writing of ancient authorities. This approach was popularized in the 17th Century in Francis Bacon's *New Atlantis*. Scientists of this period include:

Name and Dates	Nationality	Contributions
Copernicus (ko-pur'-nih-kus) 1473-1543	Polish (or Prussian)	Offered new theory: Sun was the center of the universe; the earth revolved around it; earth rotated on its axis every 24 hours.
Galileo (gah-lee-lay'-o) 1564-1642	Italian	Invented the telescope; with it discovered proof of Copernicus' theory.
Bacon 1561-1626	English	Formulated the principles of the scientific method.
Descartes 1596-1660	French	Applied mathematical principles to scientific problems.
Kepler (kep'-ler) 1571-1630	German	Laid down mathematical laws for movements of the planets.
Newton (nyoo'-t'n) 1642-1727	English	Formulated laws of gravitation.
Harvey (har'-vee) 1578-1657	English	Discovered the circulation of the blood.
Van Leeuwenhoek (lay'-ven-hook) 1632-1723	Dutch	First to observe bacteria under the microscope.
Boyle (boil) 1627-1691	English	Formulated "Boyle's Law" of gases.

5. Music. The music of the Renaissance reached a high point in the genius of Palestrina (1525-1594), an Italian composer of church music. His masses, hymns, litanies and magnificats are still enjoyed today.

Many of our familiar stringed instruments were invented during the Renaissance, as well as the ancestors of our violin, piano and organ. The orchestra was popular, and an Italian opera based on the Greek legend of Eurydice was produced in 1600.

6. Geographic Discoveries. A demand arose for new trade routes to the East to break the Italian monopoly. Important explorations led to the discovery of new lands, the development of new trade routes and to the *Commercial Revolution* of the 17th and 18th centuries. Some of the factors that spurred the new drive for exploration were:

- a. *Improvements in navigation.* By the 16th Century the magnetic compass (for guidance in sailing in the right direction), the astrolabe (for measuring latitude), improved maps and larger and better ships made possible longer and more successful voyages of exploration.
- b. *The demands for Eastern products.* Since the Crusades spices, silks, rugs, glassware, had been in great demand in Europe. A growing trade had developed, monopolized by Venice and Genoa. As a result, these cities had grown rich.
- c. *Capture of Constantinople by the Turks.* Much of the trade between Europe and the East had gone through Constantinople. The capture of this city by the Turks in 1453 made this trade route unsafe.
- d. *Desire to break the Italian monopoly.* Western Atlantic states, Portugal, Spain and later England, France and Holland, wanted to break the Italian monopoly. They set out to find an all-water route to the East, southward around Africa or westward across the Atlantic Ocean.

Portugal (under Prince Henry, "the Navigator") was the first to begin explorations, followed by Spain, and then the other countries. Out of these voyages came these empires:

Explorer and Date		Accomplishment	Claims
Portugal			
<i>Diaz</i>	1488	Reached southern tip of Africa.	Claimed Brazil, in the New World; Ceylon, Malaya, Spice Islands in East Indies; trading posts in India and Africa.
<i>Da Gama</i>	1498	Reached India around Africa.	
<i>Cabral</i>	1500	Reached Brazil.	

Spain <i>Columbus</i> 1492 <i>Balboa</i> 1513 <i>Ponce de Leon</i> 1513 <i>Cortez</i> 1519 <i>Magellan</i> 1519-22 <i>Pizarro</i> 1533	Discovered the New World. Discovered the Pacific Ocean. Discovered Florida. Conquered Mexico. His crew sailed around the world. Conquered Peru.	Claimed most of South America, all of Central America, and a large part of what is today the United States.
France <i>Cartier</i> 1534-35 <i>Champlain</i> 1608 <i>Marquette and Joliet</i> 1673 <i>La Salle</i> 1668-82	Discovered the St. Lawrence River. Founded Quebec. Explored the Mississippi River. Explored the Mississippi and its mouth.	Claimed much of Canada and the Mississippi Valley.
England <i>Cabot</i> 1497-98 <i>Drake</i> 1577-80 <i>Gilbert</i> 1583 <i>Raleigh</i> 1585-86	Explored the Labrador coast. Circumnavigated the world. Explored Newfoundland. Tried to establish a colony in North Carolina.	Claimed the Atlantic coast from the St. Lawrence to Florida. Through trading companies they established posts in India.
Holland <i>Hudson</i> 1609	Explored the Hudson River.	Claimed area around the Hudson River in New World.

Conflicting Claims Lead to New Wars. Quarrels, which led to a series of wars, arose over territory in the New World. The Portuguese fought the Dutch in the East and challenged the Spanish in the New World. But the chief rivals were the English and the French. The wars between these two were fought in Europe, North America and Asia. The second Hundred Years' War (for the First Hundred Years' War (see page 153), covering much of the 17th and 18th centuries, ended with the defeat of the French in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763)—called the French and Indian War in North America.

France lost her New World possessions (except for French Guiana and a few islands) to the British, as well as her claims to India. Britain emerged as the great empire nation.

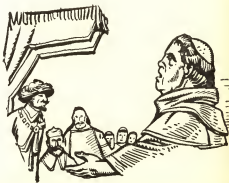
European Expansion Brings New Changes. Here are some of the most important changes brought about by these discoveries and expansions:

1. European civilization was spread over the world, into Africa, Asia and the Americas.
2. The Atlantic Ocean became the most important highway of world commerce. Europe had outgrown the Mediterranean Sea.
3. Knowledge of world geography and of the peoples of the world increased greatly.
4. World trade expanded, both in volume and in variety of goods.
5. A revolution in prices took place in Europe. The increase in gold and silver from the East and the New World led to (a) inflation, (b) a rise in prices of goods of all kinds, (c) an increase in the middle class, and (d) growing poverty for the lower classes.
6. The life of the average person changed. New products, new customs and new ideas were introduced into Europe.
7. The way was prepared for great industrial changes to increase the production of goods.

1. The Protestant Reformation

The Reformation Ends the Unity of Christendom. The Reformation was a religious revolt that ended the unity of the Christian Church in the west. It created a group of new religions, Christian but not recognizing the supremacy of the Pope. These new groups were called *Protestants* because they protested against certain practices and teachings of the Catholic Church.

MARTIN LUTHER AT THE DIET OF WORMS. In his 95 Theses, Luther criticized the Church. He called for reforms but was excommunicated by the Pope and called before the Diet of Worms. Here he was made an outlaw by the Holy Roman Empire.



What Brought About the Reformation? The revolt was touched off by a German monk, Martin Luther, in 1517. But the causes of the revolt went back several hundreds of years. They included the following:

1. **Religious.** The luxury in which some of the popes and clergy were living angered many people. They felt that the Church failed to meet the spiritual and religious needs of Europe. Many practices of the Church were disliked, such as (1) the sale of *indulgences*, to reduce the punishment for sins in the next world; (2) *simony*, or the sale of church offices for money; and (3) *nepotism*, the appointment of relatives to Church positions without regard for ability or training; (4) Babylonian Captivity and the great schism (see page 86).
2. **Political.** The growth of national states was held back by the Church. It had special church courts and claimed that Church law was higher than civil law. The rise of a spirit of nationalism increased the desire by rulers and princes for a national church which would be controlled by the state. This was in opposition to the Catholic Church, which was an international church controlled by Rome.
3. **Economic.** The collection by the Church of the *tithe*—a tax everyone in Christendom had to pay—drained a great deal of money out of the western countries. The growing business class did not like this loss of revenue for the state; it meant that businessmen had to make up the difference. Western kings also eyed with envy the riches of the Church within their realms, and resented the fact that church property could not be taxed.
4. **Intellectual.** The questioning and reasoning spirit which developed during the Renaissance led to doubts about the teachings of the Church. Many people would not accept these teachings on faith alone.

Reformers Attempt to Make Changes. As early as the 13th Century there was discontentment within the Church. A group in southern France called the Albigensians (al-bih-jenn'-see-anz) favored a simpler form of Christianity. For such beliefs, Pope Innocent III ordered a crusade against them and, in 1207, they were destroyed. About the same time the Waldenses protested against the wealth of the clergy. They claimed that any good Christian had the right to preach and that the sacraments were not necessary to salvation. They, too, were condemned as heretics.

In the 14th Century, John Wycliffe (wick'liff) of England, and Wycliffe's followers, the *Lollards*, attacked the pomp of the Church. John Hus (huss) of Bohemia was burned at the stake in 1415 for similar teachings (see page 87).

Not all critics of the Church were called heretics. The great teacher Desiderius Erasmus (e-ras'-muss) (1469-1536), who wrote *In Praise of Folly*, criticized the wealth of the clergy, the worship of saints, the monastic orders, indulgences and pilgrimages. However, he remained a loyal Catholic.

Martin Luther—1483-1546. Martin Luther, a German monk and theology professor, was directly responsible for the start of the Reformation. In 1517 he watched Papal agents sell indulgences. The money raised was to be used for the building of St. Peter's in Rome. He wrote his criticisms of the Church and his beliefs in a document called *Ninety-five Theses* and nailed it to the door of his church at Wittenberg. His *Theses* created great interest throughout the German states.

In the next few years, Luther drew farther away from Rome. He attacked the Pope and insisted that each person had the right to read and interpret the Bible for himself.

In 1521 Luther was ordered to appear before the Diet of Worms (a meeting of rulers of German states) by Emperor Charles V to face charges of heresy. But Luther's powerful friends, the princes and merchants of North Germany, came to his aid. The princes had political and economic reasons for helping him. They hoped (1) to strengthen themselves at the expense of the Emperor, and (2) that the riches of the Church would come under their control. Merchants also saw an opportunity to free themselves from Church taxation. The peasants, too, supported Luther because they felt that he was pointing the way to freedom from feudal restrictions.

Luther was excommunicated (cut off from the Church) but escaped and hid in the castle of Frederick, Prince of Saxony. There he translated the New Testament into German (later, he translated the Old Testament, too). Making the Bible thus available to the people was important to his program, for he taught that the authority of the Bible was superior to that of the Church. His translation greatly influenced not only German religion but the development of the German language as well.

Meanwhile, war broke out between German princes who were pro-Luther (mostly in the north) and those who backed the Pope (mostly in the south). In 1555 a truce was signed, and by the terms of the Peace of Augsburg each prince was given the right to choose whether his people should be Lutheran or Catholic.

Lutheranism Spreads to Scandinavia. By this time Lutheranism had spread throughout northern Europe and into the Scandinavian countries. The Reformation in Norway, Denmark and Sweden followed much the same course as in the German states. Here, too, the rulers increased their political power and wealth at the expense of the Catholic Church.

SPREAD OF PROTESTANT MOVEMENTS IN EUROPE

Country	Leader	Events
Switzerland	<p>Ulrich Zwingli (1448-1531)</p> <p>John Calvin (1509-1564)</p>	<p>Zwingli brought Protestantism to Switzerland. Later he was killed in a civil war with Catholics. Calvin, driven out of France by a Catholic king, became head of the Swiss Protestants. His <i>Institutes of the Christian Religion</i> was the most complete summary of Protestant theology. Calvinism, which frowned on luxury or gaiety, spread to many other countries.</p>
Scotland	John Knox (1505-1572)	Knox introduced Calvinism throughout Scotland, in the form of Presbyterianism.
England	<p>Henry VIII (1491-1547)</p> <p>Elizabeth I (1558-1603)</p>	<p>Two major reasons led to English separation from Catholicism: (1) the desire of Henry VIII to divorce his Spanish wife, Catherine of Aragon, so that he could remarry and assure himself of an heir, and (2) Henry's interest in the rich Church properties. When the Pope refused to grant the divorce, Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy (1534) which made the king, rather than the Pope, head of the English Church.</p> <p>Anglicanism, similar in some ways to Catholicism, became the religion of England. Henry's daughter Mary (1553-1558) failed to restore Catholicism. Under Elizabeth I, Anglicanism was reestablished as the official church, with the Archbishop of Canterbury as its head.</p> <p>The Puritans, followers of Calvin in England, left the country when they were persecuted by the Anglican Church. They founded a colony in what is today Massachusetts. This was the beginning of Protestantism on the North American continent.</p>
France	Admiral de Coligny (1519-1572)	Admiral de Coligny was converted to Protestantism and became joint leader of French Calvinists, called Huguenots, with Henry of Navarre. Aided the Huguenots by sending colonies to New World. Killed at Massacre of St. Bartholemew.



2. *The Catholic Reformation*

The attempts of the Catholic Church to halt the spread of Protestantism by reforming itself is known as the *Catholic Reformation*. Steps were taken by several popes to do this.

The Council of Trent. In 1545 Pope Paul III called together a Church Council at Trent, in northern Italy. Meeting many times over the next 18 years, the Council reaffirmed some Catholic beliefs:

1. The Pope is head of the Church.
2. The Bible and Church doctrines could be interpreted only by the Church, or by the Pope as its head.
3. The traditional Latin translation of the Bible was the only authoritative version.

The Council also adopted certain reforms:

1. The sale of indulgences and of church offices was condemned.
2. There was to be better discipline and higher educational standards for the clergy.
3. Sermons were sometimes to be preached in the language of the people.

The Holy Inquisition Stamps Out Heresy. This special Church court, first used against the heretics of France in the 13th Century, was revived. It could conduct secret trials of people suspected of heresy and burn condemned heretics at the stake. The Inquisition, particularly in Spain and Italy, was successful in stamping out all open signs of heresy.

The Papal Index—Censorship of the Press. The Papal Index was designed to prevent the circulation or publication of any book that might conflict with teachings of the Catholic faith. The Index is still kept up to date.

The Society of Jesus Is Founded. Another reform was the establishment of new monastic orders, the most important of which was the Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits. This was founded in 1534 by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman.

The Jesuits dedicated themselves to converting the heathen and winning back those lost to Protestantism. They (1) founded schools, (2) went out as missionaries and (3) acted as advisors to nobles and princes. *St. Francis Xavier* (zay'-vih-ur) was one of their most famous missionaries.

Many converts to Catholicism were made in Asia, Africa and the Americas. In Europe, the Jesuits helped halt the further spread of Protestantism.

Results of the Reformation.

1. End of the Universal Church. The Catholic Church was no longer the only Christian Church in western and central Europe. Protestantism (in the form of the Lutheran, Calvinist, Presbyterian and Anglican Churches, among others) had triumphed in northern Europe—in the Scandinavian countries, northern Germany, Holland, Switzerland, England and Scotland. Southern Europe remained loyal to Catholicism.

2. Religious Wars. A series of wars disturbed the peace of Europe for 200 years. The most important of these are:

Territories	Involved	Results
German States (1521-1555)	Protestants and Catholics in the German States.	Settled temporarily by the Peace of Augsburg (1555), by which each German ruler was permitted to choose between the Lutheran and Catholic Churches.
Holland (1567-1609)	Dutch Calvinists under William the Silent and Catholics under Philip V and the Duke of Alva, of Spain.	Dutch Protestantism and desire for freedom from Spanish rule led to the outbreak of war between the Dutch and the Spanish. In 1609 a truce ended the war and informally recognized Dutch independence.
France (1563-1598)	Huguenots and Catholics.	Spread of Protestantism in France led to civil war. In the Massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572) thousands of Huguenots slain. Henry IV granted toleration to the Huguenots by the Edict of Nantes (1598) which lasted until Louis XIV drove them out in 1685.
England (1587-1588)	Catholic Spain under Philip II and Anglican England under Elizabeth I.	Spanish trade and colonies in the New World threatened by English. To end this threat, and bring England back to Catholicism by deposing Elizabeth, Philip sent a fleet — the Armada — against England in 1588. The English fleet was victorious. Protestantism in England was saved. Spain began to decline and England to emerge as a world power.

Europe
(1618-1648
—Thirty
Years' War)

Began as a continuation of wars between German Catholics and Protestants. France, Austria and Scandinavian countries joined.



Treaty of Westphalia (1648), France received Lorraine; Sweden got western Pomerania; Brandenburg (later Prussia) got eastern Pomerania and other lands; Holland and Switzerland were recognized as independent countries. The various German princes were given sovereign powers in their own states, and Calvinist rulers were admitted to the principles of the Augsburg Truce of 1555. The war was disastrous to the Germans; unity was delayed for several hundred years.

3. Religious Tolerance. Eventually, these religious wars led to a more tolerant attitude toward religious differences. The Edict of Nantes in France, the Treaty of Westphalia in Germany, the Toleration Act of 1689 in England were examples of this growth of religious tolerance.

4. Strengthening of National States. As a result of these religious wars many kings won economic victories. Much church property was confiscated in these states, increasing royal wealth. Church exemptions from royal taxation and civil laws were ended. All this helped to strengthen the emerging national states.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



- Italian leadership in art during the Renaissance was due especially to the (a) Industrial Revolution, (b) wealth gained in trade, (c) Reformation, (d) democratic form of government. 1. _____
- The term *Renaissance* best applies to the (a) medieval system of learning, (b) rebirth of knowledge at the end of the Middle Ages, (c) scientific discoveries of Newton and Faraday, (d) changes that took place as the result of Luther's attacks on the Church. 2. _____
- Of the following, the man best known for works relating to the solar system is (a) James Hargreaves, (b) William Harvey, (c) Samuel Morse, (d) Nicolaus Copernicus. 3. _____
- England broke away from the control of the Pope in religious matters during the reign of (a) Victoria, (b) Henry VIII, (c) James I, (d) Cromwell. 4. _____
- I lived in the era of cultural reawakening. My talents were varied. I painted *The Last Supper*. In the field of science I predicted the

- invention of the airplane. I am (a) Da Vinci, (b) Michelangelo, (c) Raphael, (d) Titian. 5. _____
6. I was a dramatist in the Elizabethan period. My works have been translated into many languages and are produced on the modern stage. I am (a) Chaucer, (b) Kipling, (c) Shakespeare, (d) Shaw. 6. _____
7. A handbook for absolute rulers was (a) Diderot's *Encyclopaedia*, (b) Machiavelli's *The Prince*, (c) Plato's *The Republic*, (d) More's *Utopia*. 7. _____
8. Which nation is correctly paired with one of its leading writers? (a) England—Ibsen, (b) France—Chaucer, (c) Italy—Dante, (d) Spain—Montesquieu. 8. _____
9. Two nations that successfully established colonies in North America were (a) France and Portugal, (b) Russia and Denmark, (c) Spain and England, (d) Sweden and Prussia. 9. _____
10. Who was the founder of the Jesuit order? (a) St. Augustine, (b) Ignatius Loyola, (c) Cardinal Richelieu, (d) Thomas Aquinas. 10. _____
11. Who was the founder of the Protestant Church in Germany? (a) Martin Luther, (b) John Wycliffe, (c) John Calvin, (d) Erasmus. 11. _____
12. A literary work associated with the Renaissance in Spain is (a) Dante's *Divine Comedy*, (b) Cervantes' *Don Quixote*, (c) Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, (d) Montaigne's *Essays*. 12. _____
13. Which one of these was a purpose of the 16th Century voyages of exploration? (a) to capture Constantinople from the Turks, (b) to seize Arab trade routes, (c) to seek new routes to the East, (d) to recover the Holy Land for Christianity. 13. _____
14. Which group pairs a Renaissance artist with his native land? (a) Van Dyck—Germany, (b) Rembrandt—the Netherlands, (c) Da Vinci—Spain, (d) Raphael—France. 14. _____
15. Which group pairs two Renaissance authors? (a) Cervantes—Shakespeare, (b) Goethe—Tolstoi, (c) Virgil—Machiavelli, (d) Erasmus—Peter Abelard. 15. _____
16. Which one of these was generally true about governments of western Europe during the Renaissance period? (a) feudal lords gained power, (b) parliamentary governments replaced divine right rulers, (c) suffrage was extended to the middle class, (d) absolute monarchies were established. 16. _____
17. The theory that objects fall toward the earth according to the laws that govern the motion of planets around the sun was developed by (a) Roger Bacon, (b) William Harvey, (c) Isaac Newton, (d) Louis Pasteur. 17. _____
18. The Protestant Reformation made its greatest gains in (a) Spain, (b) France, (c) Germany, (d) Italy. 18. _____
19. The first man to sail from Portugal around the southern tip of Africa to India was (a) Ferdinand Magellan, (b) Bartholomew Diaz, (c) Vasco da Gama, (d) John Cabot. 19. _____
20. Which was the most important art center during the European Renaissance? (a) Athens, (b) Berlin, (c) Florence, (d) Vienna. 20. _____

21. Which was the cause of the European Renaissance? (a) the Crusades, (b) the discovery of the New World, (c) the Industrial Revolution, (d) the Black Death. 21.
22. The writings of Dante and Cervantes were similar in that most of them were written (a) in Latin, (b) in the language of the people, (c) on scientific subjects, (d) on religious subjects. 22.
23. The courts of the Inquisition were established to (a) stamp out corruption, (b) combat heresy, (c) convert Germanic barbarians, (d) punish traitors to the king. 23.
24. The emergence of a modern English language is best seen in the (a) plays of Shakespeare, (b) *Canterbury Tales* of Chaucer, (c) writings of Cervantes, (d) *Iliad* of Homer. 24.
25. The Protestant Reformation (a) began in Italy, (b) was opposed by Martin Luther, (c) led to peaceful religious changes in Germany and in England, (d) gave the world a German translation of the Bible. 25.
26. A medieval scientist would have probably reached his conclusion by (a) observation, (b) consulting Aristotle's works, (c) trial and error, (d) experimentation. 26.
27. Which of the following was most characteristic of the Renaissance? (a) strengthening of religious ties, (b) change from monarchical to democratic governments, (c) increased interest in the affairs of the world, (d) growth of self sufficiency. 27.
28. The invention of the printing press (a) occurred at the time of Charlemagne's education system, (b) took place in England, (c) occurred around 1100 A.D., (d) helped the spread of the Renaissance. 28.
29. The Hanseatic League was (a) a society of knights, (b) a union of trading cities, (c) the name given to a group of Moslem fanatics, (d) an underground organization of serfs. 29.
30. If Harvey were alive today he would be (a) in charge of English naval affairs, (b) the head of an atomic energy plant, (c) on the United States Supreme Court, (d) the head of a special hospital. 30.
31. French Protestants mistreated by Louis XIV were called (a) Calvinists, (b) Quakers, (c) Huguenots, (d) Anglicans. 31.
32. What adjective best applies to a person who is called "machiavelian"? (a) kind, (b) tolerant, (c) unscrupulous, (d) learned. 32.
33. John Knox was a follower of Calvin in (a) Scotland, (b) England, (c) Holland, (d) France. 33.
34. The Peace of Augsburg stated that (a) the people must obey the religious choice of their prince, (b) the people could choose their religion, (c) all the people of Germany must join the Lutheran Church, (d) the Emperor could choose the religion of the Germans. 34.
35. The reforms of the Catholic Church were made by (a) the Society of Jesus, (b) the Council of Trent, (c) the Treaty of Westphalia, (d) the "defender of the faith." 35.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. Renaissance authors: (a) Shakespeare, (b) Villon, (c) Montaigne, (d) Dickens.
2. Renaissance scientists: (a) Kepler, (b) Galileo, (c) Ptolemy, (d) Copernicus.
3. Renaissance artists: (a) Dante, (b) Velasquez, (c) Raphael, (d) Titian.
4. Explorers: (a) John Cabot, (b) Balboa, (c) Ferdinand, (d) Magellan.
5. Protestant leaders: (a) John Calvin, (b) John Knox, (c) Admiral Coligny, (d) Ignatius Loyola.
6. German Protestantism: (a) indulgences, (b) Concordat of Worms, (c) Peace of Augsburg, (d) translation of the Bible.
7. Language of the people: (a) *Sic et Non*, (b) *Canterbury Tales*, (c) *Don Quixote*, (d) *Lusiad*.
8. Early printers: (a) Gutenberg, (b) Aldus, (c) Caxton, (d) Chaucer.
9. Forerunners of Protestantism: (a) Albigensians, (b) Lollards, (c) scholastics, (d) Waldenses.
10. Catholic Reformation: (a) Council of Nicea, (b) Papal Index, (c) Holy Inquisition, (d) Council of Trent.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I	II
_____ 1. Dante	a. favored experimentation and observation by scientists
_____ 2. Copernicus	b. a great artist famous for his glowing colors
_____ 3. Francis Bacon	c. ridiculed the customs and manners of the feudal age
_____ 4. Harvey	d. Renaissance music
_____ 5. Cervantes	e. Discovered the Pacific Ocean
_____ 6. Michelangelo	f. <i>Divine Comedy</i>
_____ 7. Titian	g. printing by movable type
_____ 8. Gutenberg	h. circulation of the blood
_____ 9. Balboa	i. painted the <i>Mona Lisa</i>
_____ 10. Palestrina	j. refuted the Ptolemaic theory
	k. painter, sculptor, architect

TRUE-FALSE SUBSTITUTION TEST

Write T in the space provided at the left if the statement is correct; if the statement is false, substitute the correct word or phrase for the word in *italics*.

- _____ 1. The Renaissance began in Italy, in the field of *literature*

- 2. The Commercial Revolution was hastened by improvements in navigation such as the magnetic compass and the *astrolabe*.
- 3. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 led to *increased* trade between the Italian cities and the Near East.
- 4. *Portugal* claimed and held the major portion of territory in the New World as a result of its explorations.
- 5. The Second Hundred Years' War was fought between England and *France*.
- 6. *Erasmus* criticized the Church but remained loyal to it.
- 7. Luther posted his 95 Theses on the church door at *Berlin*.
- 8. By the Act of Supremacy (1534) the *Pope* became the head of the English Church.
- 9. Huguenots of France resembled the Presbyterians of *England*.
- 10. Many converts to Catholicism in Asia, Africa, and the Americas were made by *Jesuits*.



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Show how the Renaissance influenced each of three of the following: (a) art, (b) development of commerce and industry, (c) education, (d) rise of modern nations.
2. (a) Discuss fully a contribution made during the Renaissance period in each of two of the following fields: architecture, painting, literature. (b) Show how the Commercial Revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries was influenced by two scientific discoveries or inventions.
3. Identify the part played by each of the following with regard to the Reformation: Martin Luther, Ignatius Loyola, Philip II of Spain, John Calvin, Henry VIII of England.
4. The Renaissance saw the triumph of the individual in various fields of activity. Select *one* person from *each* of the five groups below and describe a specific contribution made by *each* person selected.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Michelangelo	Dante	Copernicus	Cabot	Martin Luther
Rembrandt	Shakespeare	Galileo	Da Gama	John Calvin
Da Vinci	Cervantes	Kepler	Prince Henry	Ignatius Loyola
5. (a) Describe two reasons why the European Renaissance began in Italy. (b) Select two of the following fields and show an important change that occurred during the Renaissance in Europe in each field chosen: architecture, literature, religion, science.
6. State one specific way in which each of five of the following contributed to the Renaissance: Columbus, Gutenberg, Titian, Dante, Machiavelli, Galileo, Newton.
7. Explain specifically how the following have influenced *modern* civilization: (a) the Renaissance, (b) the Reformation, (c) the Commercial Revolution.
8. Describe one effect of the Reformation in each of these countries: France, England, Germany, Holland, Scotland, English colonies in America.



Rise and Growth of National States

1. *England—the First Strong National State*

Anglo-Saxons Rule England. In the early part of the 5th Century, the island of Britain was invaded and conquered by Germanic barbarians belonging to the Angle, Saxon and Jute tribes. So thoroughly did they take over the island that only a few traces of Roman civilization now remain—mostly in road and place names. For almost 600 years these tribes ruled the island, giving it their name (Angle Land), their customs and their government. Christianity was introduced in 597, by the missionary Augustine.

Originally, there were seven separate Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. By 828, however, they were joined together and Egbert became the first king of a united England. The greatest Anglo-Saxon king was Alfred the Great (871-901). He promoted culture, improved the education of the clergy and established a code of laws.

Alfred founded a navy to protect England from the Danes, a Scandinavian people. However, the Danes succeeded in seizing and ruling the eastern section of England (called the *Danelaw*). Alfred was also forced to pay a tribute to them (called the *Danegeld*).

For a time the Danes were beaten by Alfred's successors, but they returned in 1013 and within a few years had conquered all of England. In 1042 the last of the Danish kings died, and the Anglo-Saxons were again in control.

The Normans Conquer England. Some of the Norsemen had settled down in north France, in the province to be called Normandy. When the Anglo-Saxon king, Edward the Confessor, died in 1066, William, Duke of Normandy, claimed the English throne. He invaded the island with his Norman knights, and killed the Saxon ruler, Harold, at the Battle of Hastings. This was the last successful invasion of England. From that year to this, England has held off threats of invasion.


What Was the Anglo-Norman Civilization Like? The Normans were in authority in Church and state and the Anglo-Saxons were in the status of the conquered. Feudalism was introduced, but the king retained control. The king demanded a pledge of allegiance from his nobles called the *Salisbury Oath*.

William ordered a minute survey of landholdings and other tax-

able property in England; this was recorded in the *Domesday Book*. He used this information as a basis for taxation and collected to the last penny all dues owed him. He kept the old Anglo-Saxon system of the *shires* (territorial divisions of the kingdom) under royal officers called *sheriffs*. Shire courts were kept to balance the feudal courts of the lords. William also controlled the appointment of church officials.

William's successors strengthened royal power; they expanded control over lawmaking and created groups of special advisers to help govern the realm (such as the "lords of the exchequer" to look after the royal finances).

Early Limitations on Absolute Rule. The next 200 years marked the gradual decline in the absolute powers of the English kings. This table shows the most important steps:

King	Reform
Henry II 1154-1189	This great law reformer (1) created a grand jury system to investigate and indict wrongdoers, and a <i>petit jury</i> to try them; (2) appointed judges who traveled from one town to another, hearing cases and handing down decisions; (3) laid the foundations for the English common law. This is the foundation of our law today.
John 1199-1216 	This unpopular English king was forced by the nobles to sign the <i>Magna Carta</i> in 1215 at Runnymede. This document provided that (1) no freeman could be imprisoned or his property taken away until he had been tried by a jury of his equals; (2) justice could not be bought or sold; (3) taxation could be levied only with the consent of the Great Council (important nobles and church officials). These principles were later extended to the common people.
Henry III 1216-1272	This weak ruler was forced to sign the <i>Provisions of Oxford</i> (1258) which handed over the powers of government to a small group of nobles. Later, when Simon de Montfort seized Henry as a prisoner, he enlarged the Great Council with two knights from each shire and two citizens from each town (1265).
Edward I 1272-1307	This king adapted de Montfort's form of parliament and it was known as the <i>Magna Parliament</i> (1295). Thereafter, Parliament included nobles, clergy, townsmen and representatives of the shires.

England Fails to Conquer Scotland. Edward I conquered Wales in 1277 and again in 1282, bringing it under the control of England. Later he made his eldest son the Prince of Wales. His efforts to

conquer Scotland failed as the Scots under Robert Bruce defeated Edward II at the Battle of Bannockburn (1314). Thus, Scottish independence for another 300 years was assured.

The Hundred Years' War—1337-1453. Ever since William, Duke of Normandy, had made himself King of England in 1066, the English kings had ruled large areas of France—as fiefs of the French king. Various French kings, from Philip Augustus on, had taken away parts of these English fiefs until by the 14th Century the English were left with only Guyenne and Gascony in southwestern France. Bad feeling arose over these remaining areas, which was increased by (1) English claims to the French throne—Edward III claimed he had inherited it through his mother; (2) French aid to the Scots, who were fighting the English, and (3) the interference of France in the English-Flemish trade in wool and wine. These factors led to the outbreak of war in 1337.

The war, which lasted until 1453, is known as "The Hundred Years' War," although there were long periods of peace during these years. France was invaded by a large English army under the Black Prince, a son of Edward III and, at Crécy (kray'-see) in 1346 and Poitiers (pwah-tyay') in 1356, the French knights were badly beaten. The important port of Calais was also taken by the English.

In 1415 fighting broke out again and the French forces again were defeated, this time at Agincourt. Led by Joan of Arc (see page 153), the French finally drove out the English, who held only the port of Calais on the English Channel.


As a result of these wars English patriotism was stimulated. Their victories at Crécy, Poitiers and Agincourt made them very proud of their nation. Later, the loss of their possessions in France forced the English kings to pay more attention to the development of their own country.

During the war a terrible epidemic, known as the Black Death, swept through Europe and killed about one-third of the population. It hastened the death of feudalism.

Wars of the Roses—1455-1485. Shortly after the end of the Hundred Years' War, England went through a civil war. It was caused by claims to the English throne by the House of York (with the badge of a white rose) and the House of Lancaster (of the red rose). The war lasted for 30 years. The Lancastrians finally won and placed Henry Tudor on the throne.

The Tudors Rule England. The Wars of the Roses destroyed the old nobility which, in turn, killed feudalism in England. The people of England wanted peace, security and a strong government. The Tudor kings provided this strong rule. They restored the strong royal powers and increased English power in international affairs.

OUTSTANDING TUDOR MONARCHS

Monarch Date of Reign	Chief Events
Henry VII (1485-1509)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Used the Star Chamber, a special court, to bring the barons under his control. 2. Encouraged commerce and trade through treaties with foreign nations. 3. Made England more prosperous by his wise, though absolute, rule.
Henry VIII (1509-1547)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Created an Anglican Church, with himself as head. 2. Dissolved monasteries and seized much of Church wealth. 3. Laid the foundation for British naval leadership. 4. Kept Parliament under his control, but permitted it to meet as a symbol of popular support for his policies.
Edward VI (1547-1553)	During his brief reign, Protestantism grew stronger in England.
Mary (1553-1558)	A Catholic, she married Philip II of Spain and tried to restore Catholicism in England. She persecuted Protestants and was called "Bloody Mary."
Elizabeth I (1558-1603) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Firmly established Anglicanism as the religion of England. 2. Developed English seapower; defeated the Spanish Armada (1588), permitted English captains to raid Spanish galleons. 3. Stimulated trade. 4. Reigned during the flowering of the Renaissance in England.

The Stuarts Reign in England. Elizabeth I died in 1603 without an heir. The throne of England then passed to her nearest male relative—her cousin, James Stuart, King of Scotland. One good feature of this reign was that Scotland and England were at last united.

James I—1603-1625—the Divine Right of Kings. The Tudors had learned to get along with Parliament, but the Stuarts were absolute rulers. James believed in the divine right of kings. He summarized his idea of government in the Latin phrase "*a deo rex, a rege lex*"—"the king is from God, and the law from the King." This theory (advocated by most absolute monarchs at this time) gives the ruler supreme power which cannot be challenged by anyone.

James was disliked by many of the English. First, he was a "foreigner"—a Scot. Besides, they resented his autocratic rule, and the appointment of his personal friends to positions of authority. They objected to his wild spending and opposed his foreign policies. (James tried to marry his son to the Catholic princess of Spain. He deserted the German Protestants in their fight against the Spanish and Austrian rulers.) James also angered the Puritans—Protestants who believed the Reformation had not gone far enough in eliminating Catholic ritual from the Anglican religion.

The Personal Rule of Charles I — 1625-1640. When Parliament refused to grant money to Charles I, son of James I, Charles tried to force some of his subjects to give him gifts. When they also refused, Charles threw them in jail. Parliament then forced Charles to accept the *Petition of Right* (1628), by which he promised (1) not to levy further taxes without the consent of Parliament, (2) not to order arbitrary imprisonment, (3) not to quarter troops in private houses and (4) not to impose martial law in time of peace.

The dispute between Parliament and the King continued, however. Charles dissolved Parliament and for 11 years did not call it back into session. During these years he collected taxes illegally, defied the Puritan merchants by appointing William Laud, a High Churchman, as Archbishop of Canterbury. Those who disagreed with him, he threw into jail.

The Scots Revolt Against Anglican Church Control. When Charles attempted to bring the Scotch Presbyterians under the control of the Anglican Church, the Scots rebelled (1638). The King then called upon Parliament to raise money to crush the revolt. The resulting *Long Parliament* (1640-1660) was controlled by the Puritans. Instead of voting the money Charles wanted, it (1) passed laws that limited his power, and (2) executed two of his chief supporters, including William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. When Charles hit back by arresting some Parliament leaders after the Scots had been defeated, civil war broke out.

Civil War Between the Cavaliers and Roundheads (1642-1649). This war was between the supporters of the king (called *Cavaliers*) and the supporters of Parliament (called *Roundheads*, because of their closely cropped hair). In back of this war was the struggle between a fading feudalism and a growing merchant capitalism. Most people in the commercial centers were Puritans and favored the Roundheads.

Under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell, the "New Model" army of the Puritans defeated the king's forces at Marston Moor (1644) and Naseby (1645). Charles was captured, tried for treason, found guilty and executed in 1649. With his death, the theory of the divine right of kings ended in England.

England Becomes a Commonwealth. The victorious members of the Long Parliament now governed England. Oliver Cromwell crushed a rebellion in Ireland and sent the Parliament home in 1653. Supported by his soldiers, he ruled until his death in 1658 as military and religious dictator of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Under Cromwell, English trade, industry and naval power increased. Territory was added, such as Jamaica (taken from the Spaniards). The American colonial trade was regulated by the passage of the Navigation Acts. A strict Puritan, Cromwell disapproved of dancing and the theater, ordered regular church-going and the wearing of dark clothing.

The Restoration—1660. After Cromwell died in 1658, the Long Parliament was called back into session. It invited Charles II, son of the executed Charles I, to return to England.

Charles II—1660-1685—the Habeas Corpus Act. Charles II reversed the policies of the Commonwealth, driving all Puritans out of public office. In 1679 he signed the *Habeas Corpus Act* which provided that no person could be held without being brought before a judge within a specific time and told the charges against him. This further limited royal power by preventing improper arrest and imprisonment.

The Short Reign of James II—1685-1688. The reign of James, younger brother of Charles, was filled with disputes with Parliament and disagreements with the Anglicans. One major dispute occurred when his second wife gave birth to a boy in 1688, and the child was baptized a Catholic. The leaders of Parliament decided to ask the Protestant daughter of his first wife to take the throne instead. This was Mary, who had married the King of Holland, William of Orange.

The "Glorious Revolution." William and Mary accepted and landed in England in 1688. James, deserted even by his army, fled to France. A bloodless revolution, called the "Glorious Revolution," had taken place. To insure Parliamentary control over the king, the *Bill of Rights* was passed (1689) and signed by the new rulers. Its most important provisions were:

1. The king could not suspend laws, levy taxes, or maintain an army without the consent of Parliament.
2. Parliament should meet often; its members were to be freely elected, and allowed freedom in their debates.
3. The people were entitled to petition their ruler without fear of persecution.
4. Those charged with crimes were guaranteed a jury trial.
5. Cruel or unusual punishments and excessive bails and fines were outlawed.
6. All English kings must be Anglicans.

In the same year a *Toleration Act* was adopted granting freedom of worship to all Protestant sects. In 1701, the *Act of Settlement* provided that no Roman Catholic could ascend the throne.

By the Glorious Revolution (1) absolute monarchy had been ended in England, (2) Parliament had become supreme, (3) a Protestant state was assured, and (4) the influence of the English middle classes was firmly established. John Locke, in *Two Treatises of Government*, justified the actions of Parliament in throwing out an unjust king for the good of the people.

Constitutional Government Grows. In the 18th Century constitutional democratic government grew in England and the power of the kings declined.



EUROPE IN 1648. The Treaty of Westphalia, signed in 1648, marked the end of the Thirty Years' War. Most of the countries of Europe were involved in this long, bloody and costly struggle. Though the Holy Roman Empire was weakened by this war, it continued to exist until 1806, when Napoleon dissolved it.

SUMMARY OF ENGLISH LIMITATIONS ON ABSOLUTE RULE

Principle	How It Developed
Henry II (1154-1189)	a. Grand jury system. b. Judges "in circuit"—uniform enforcement of law c. Common law
John (1199-1216)	Magna Carta—1215. a. No taxation without consent of Council. b. Trial by jury for all freemen. c. No "price" for justice.
Henry III (1216-1272)	Provisions of Oxford—1258. Equal representation for each county and town.
Edward I (1272-1307)	Magna Carta—1295. Expanded representation to include new middle class.
Period 1277-1485	Constant warfare distracted people from the powers of king.
Period of the Tudors (1485-1603)	Popularity of rulers increased royal powers.
James I (1603-1625)	Divine right of kings theory not respected.
Charles I (1625-1649)	Petition of Rights—1628. a. Consent of Parliament to tax. b. No arbitrary imprisonment. c. No martial law in peacetime. d. No quartering of troops in homes. Charles was executed for treason.
Cromwell (1649-1658)	England ruled by military leader, not royalty.
Charles II (1660-1685)	Heir to throne invited to rule. Habeas Corpus Act—1679 Prevented false arrest or imprisonment.
James II (1685-1688)	Glorious Revolution. King dethroned, 1688. Two parties organized during this period—Tories, consisting of the nobility, wealthy landowners and supporters of the Anglican Church; Whigs, representing middle-class merchants and townspeople.
William and Mary (1689-1702)	Bill of Rights—1689. Toleration Act—1689. Act of Settlement—1701. Cabinet. To make sure that the bills they favored would be passed, William and Mary selected their advisors from the majority party in Parliament.
Anne (1702-1714)	No veto by monarch since 1707.
George I (1714-1727)	The Hanoverian Kings did not speak English and the cabinet governed the country.
George II (1727-1760)	The leader of the cabinet presided at meetings and gradually emerged as the Prime, or first, Minister of the king. Robert Walpole, who occupied this position from 1721 to 1742, was England's first prime minister.

The King Reigns But Does Not Rule. The reigning monarch was still the head of the state. All laws were made, treaties signed and officials appointed in his name. In practice, however, most of his duties were given to his prime minister and cabinet.

The king's powers were limited in these ways: (1) he could no longer levy taxes; (2) he could not make laws or veto legislation; (3) he lost control of the judiciary; he could not remove judges or imprison anyone without a trial; (4) he could not make war or maintain an army; (5) he could not appoint or keep in office any minister who did not have the confidence of a majority of Parliament. The king was no longer a ruler but a figurehead.

Undemocratic Features of Limited Monarchy. Despite these limitations England was far from being a democratic state, as we understand the term today. Here are some of the differences between a truly democratic state and England in the 18th Century. (1) Although Parliament supposedly represented all the people of England, actually the House of Lords, the upper chamber, had more power than the Commons, the lower house; (2) few Englishmen could vote; suffrage (right to vote) was limited to the landowning class; (3) lack of a secret ballot encouraged bribery, corruption and threats; (4) many new industrial towns had no representation in Parliament, while older towns with declining populations continued to elect representatives; (5) members of Parliament were unpaid, which meant that only the rich could afford to serve; (6) religious qualifications barred Catholics and Jews from holding office; (7) at least a hundred offenses were punishable by death.

In spite of these undemocratic aspects, England had the most liberal and constitutional government of all the major countries in Europe at that time. For further advances in democracy in England, see pages 252-257

2. *France Becomes a Strong National State*

The Capetian Rulers. In 987 the last of the French successors of Charlemagne died and a feudal lord, Hugh Capet, was named king by the nobles. At that time France was only a small duchy (the territory of a duke) centering around the city of Paris. It was surrounded by independent provinces which were governed by strong feudal lords.

For the next 300 years, the successors of Hugh Capet built up a strong central government by increasing the powers of the king. They increased their domain by taking land from the nobles. Some of the outstanding Capetian (ka-pee'-shan) rulers are shown in the table on the following page.

Ruler and Date	Achievements
Philip Augustus (1180-1223)	Brought English possessions in France under royal control. Also won control of Toulouse in southern France from the Albigensians.
Louis IX (1226-1270)	Set up a new system of currency; further limited the powers of the nobles and tried to restrict their private wars; made legal reforms to bring justice under royal, rather than feudal, control.
Philip IV (The Fair) (1285-1314)	Increased royal power by taxing Church lands and clergy and by seizing the wealth of the Knights Templar; added to his territories; moved the seat of the Papacy from Rome to Avignon. To gain popular support for these moves, called the first Estates General (1302), a body representing the middle class as well as the clergy and the nobles.
Louis XI (1461-83)	Brought all of France, except Brittany, under royal control; left nobles and Estates General little power.

The Hundred Years' War—1337-1453. This series of wars between France and England grew out of the efforts of the French kings to eliminate the English holdings in France. Another reason was the attempts of English kings to claim the French throne.

The wars did not go well for the French. Defeats at Cr cy (1346), Poitiers (1356) and Agincourt (1415) destroyed French knighthood. The countryside was ruined and the French kings could not control either the English or rebellious French nobles.

In this crisis, Joan of Arc, a young peasant girl, appeared as the savior of the French. She believed that she was chosen by God to lead the French to victory. In 1429 she persuaded Charles VII to allow her to take over the French armies and led them for a year successfully against the English. She also had the king crowned at the cathedral at Reims (rans), and ended the English siege of the city of Orleans. She was finally captured by the English and tried by a Church court on charges of heresy and witchcraft. In 1430, Joan of Arc was burned at the stake.

Joan of Arc's heroism inspired the king and the soldiers, and aroused a patriotic, national feeling among the people. Gradually the English were driven out of the country, and by 1453 only Calais was left in the hands of the English. The Hundred Years' War had ended.

France came out of these wars a united nation and with a new national pride. Many of the nobles had been killed and the king's

authority was thus increased. The elimination of English interference and English possessions in France also helped the growth of absolute power

Religious Wars Between Catholics and Protestants. In the 16th Century religious wars broke out between the Catholics and the Huguenots (French Protestants). They ended when Henry of Navarre, a Huguenot (hyoo'-ge-not), became a Catholic and King of France. One of his first acts was to grant religious toleration to the Huguenots by the *Edict of Nantes* (1598)




JOAN OF ARC—MAID OF ORLEANS.

In a time when women were practically barred from taking part in public affairs, Joan of Arc managed to persuade her countrymen to follow her. She led French forces to great victories over the English. She was finally captured and burned at the stake in the public square in Rouen.

The Bourbon descendants of Henry were aided by these outstanding ministers:

Minister	King	Achievements
Sully (1597-1610)	Henry IV (1589-1610)	Increased royal revenues by reducing wild spending; built public works; increased agriculture and foreign trade; made France rich and powerful
Cardinal Richelieu (rish-eh-loo') (1624-1642)	Louis XIII (1610-1643)	Made king absolute by (1) forcing Huguenots to give up their special military and political privileges; (2) destroying the castle fortresses of nobles; (3) putting local government in the king's hands by creating the post of <i>intendant</i> , appointed by the king, to govern the provinces; (4) making France a leading country of Europe by dimming the power of the Hapsburgs (ruling family of Austria) in the Thirty Years' War (1618-48). (See page 150)



Cardinal Mazarin (1643-1661)		<p>Destroyed the power of the nobles in the Fronde after the lords had tried to regain their influence; added territories; increased the absolutism of the French king.</p>
Colbert (1665-1683)		<p>Introduced a budget system; encouraged agriculture and new industries; built up the French navy; removed internal customs duties to promote trade, encouraged colonial expansion in India and America. All this enabled Louis XIV to carry on a series of costly wars.</p>

Louis XIV—"I Am the State!" France, with the help of its ministers, became the leading power of Europe. Some of the features of Louis XIV's reign follow:

1. **Absolute Rule.** Louis ruled with no check on his power. The Estates General was never called into session during his 72-year reign. All powers—collecting and spending taxes, making laws, waging war, handing out justice—were given to him. Truly, he said: "L'état, c'est moi!" ("I am the state!")
2. **Encouragement of Culture.** Louis encouraged art and literature. Some of the greatest French dramatists of this period included Corneille (kor-nay'-y), the tragedian; Molière (mo-lyayr'), a master of satire; and Racine (rah-seen'), the greatest dramatic poet. Before Louis' reign ended, French plays, novels and manners had been adopted by cultured people everywhere. The French language became the tongue of diplomacy and international society.
3. **The Court at Versailles.** Louis built a magnificent palace at Versailles, not far from Paris. Here was his capital and here his chief nobles had to live, wait upon him and seek his favors—and be where he could watch them. His extravagances at Versailles helped to keep his treasury low.
4. **Religious Difficulties.** In 1685 Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes (pages 138, 154) and began to persecute the Huguenots. Several hundred thousands fled to England, Holland, Prussia—even to America. Since many Huguenots were skilled workers, French industry was hurt.
5. **Wars.** Louis tried to win the Rhine River—the "natural frontier" of France. He plunged his country into a series of wars involving many countries of Europe. The outcome of these wars greatly weakened France and added little territory.

3. *Rise and Decline of Spain As a World Power*

Early History of Spain. In the course of its history, Spain has been conquered and ruled by the Iberians (the original inhabitants); the Carthaginians (during the 3rd Century B.C.); the Romans (from 201 B.C. to about 550 A.D.); the Visigoths (558 to 711), and the Mohammedans (711 to 1492).

The rich culture of the Mohammedans (see page 90) was introduced into Spain and made that country an important center of learning and industry during the early Middle Ages.

All Spain Becomes Christian. In the 8th Century the Moslems won all of Spain except for a few Christian provinces. Gradually, as the Christian states grew stronger, they pushed back the Moors, until by the middle of the 15th Century only the province of Granada in the south remained Moorish. In 1469 the two largest Christian kingdoms were united through the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. In 1492, when this powerful new state pushed the Moors from their last stronghold, all of Spain became Christian.

Rise of Royal Power—Ferdinand and Isabella. The foundations for a strong centralized government were laid by (1) stripping the nobles of their power, (2) establishing a police force, (3) nominating Church officials, (4) weakening the power of the Cortes (Parliament), (5) encouraging explorations, which laid the foundations for a vast empire in the New World. Through the Inquisition these monarchs also (6) persecuted Jews and Moors, finally expelling them. While expulsions strengthened the religious and racial unity of the country, they hurt commerce and industry.

The Reign of Charles V—1519-1556. The most powerful state in Europe during the 16th Century was Spain; the most influential ruler, Charles V. From his mother he inherited Spain, Sicily, Naples and Sardinia and a large empire in the Americas. From his father he inherited Austria, Luxemburg and the Netherlands. In addition, in 1520 he became Holy Roman Emperor.

Charles found himself constantly at war with the powerful French kingdom; with the Protestants of Germany; and with the Moslem Turks, who had conquered Hungary in 1526 and threatened Austria. The wars, and losses of Catholicism in Germany, caused Charles to give up his throne in 1556. His son Philip became King of Spain and his brother Ferdinand became ruler of the Austrian territories and also Holy Roman Emperor.

Philip II Reigns—1556-1598. The wealth coming from the Americas made Spain the richest country in Europe at this time. But it was a

false prosperity. The stocks of gold and silver raised prices to a higher level than in any other country; the result was that Spain bought more than it sold. Charles' many wars had also helped to drain Spain of its gold.

Philip II tried to (1) enforce government and the Catholic faith in his dominions, (2) make Spain the leading power in Europe, and (3) restore Catholic unity through the Inquisition. He failed in all of these. The Dutch, many of whom were Calvinists, revolted and won their freedom from Spanish rule. England continually raided Spain's American colonies and when, in 1588, Philip organized an Armada to destroy the British fleet, his own fleet was destroyed. His highly centralized government broke down because of favoritism and corruption. His taxation program, including a 10% sales tax, almost destroyed what was left of Spanish commerce and industry. From his reign on, Spain continued to decline as a world power.

4. *Formation and Growth of Prussia*

Early History of Prussia. The German Duchy of Brandenburg in north central Europe on the Baltic Sea was a part of the Holy Roman Empire. This was ruled by the Hohenzollern family, a line of rulers called Electors. Since the 15th Century they had gradually extended their borders.

Frederick William I—1640-1688—the Great Elector. Frederick made Prussia first among the German states. He centralized the government, and raised enough money to build up a strong army. His son Frederick I (1701-13) took the title of King of Prussia. Frederick William II (1713-40) annexed Swedish Pomerania.

Frederick the Great—1740-1786—Greatest Prussian King. As an "enlightened despot" Frederick the Great encouraged education and religious toleration; he promoted industry and built canals, roads and bridges.

In foreign affairs, he seized the rich province of Silesia from Austria and successfully fought off attempts to regain it in the Seven Years' War (1756-63). This war involved the major nations of Europe, with England on the side of Prussia, and France helping Austria. The war was fought in America, too, but there it was known as the French and Indian War (see page 132).

In 1772 Frederick took part in the first of three partitions of Poland and gained the western part of that country. By the time he died, Frederick had made Prussia the most militaristic and centralized government in all of Europe. He had also doubled its area and army, and made it a serious rival to Austria in the management of German affairs—long a monopoly of the Hapsburgs.

5. *Russia Before the 19th Century*

The Early History of Russia. The Vikings from Sweden invaded Russia in the 9th Century and conquered the original Slav inhabitants. They set up a kingdom around Novgorod and Kiev under their leader Rurik. They then set up trade with Constantinople and Bagdad, and merged with the people they had conquered. In the 10th Century these Russians were converted to Christianity by missionaries of the Greek Orthodox Church. In the 13th Century they were conquered by the Mongols from Asia under Genghis Khan.

For 250 years the "Golden Horde" ruled Russia with an iron fist. Russian princes collected taxes and turned over the money to the Mongols. But one prince, Ivan III, refused to pay tribute to the Tartar rulers. With a strong army at his back, he conquered the important city of Novgorod, threw out the Tartars and set up an independent state.



RUSSIA IN THE 18th CENTURY. Catherine continued Peter the Great's expansion policies. She seized the opportunity to attack her neighbors when they were at their weakest.

- AREAS ADDED BY PETER THE GREAT
- AREAS ADDED BY CATHERINE II
- BOUNDARY OF RUSSIA IN 1800

Ivan the Terrible—Czar of All the Russias. Ivan IV (1533-84) pushed out the Tartars from European Russia and extended his frontiers until he clashed with the Poles and Swedes. In the 17th Century, under the Romanovs, who ascended the Russian throne in 1613, this westward expansion was continued.

Because there were few natural barriers like mountains (with the exception of the Caucasus in the south and the Carpathians in the west), it was possible for the Muscovite state to move easily across her steppes (fertile grasslands) in all directions. However, the major nations of western Europe were not concerned over the rise of this new state since Sweden and Poland stood in Russia's path as buffer states.

Peter the Great Opens the "Windows to the West." Peter Romanov (1682-1725) was determined to "westernize," or modernize Russia by opening "windows to the west." By this he meant the ice-free seaports on the Baltic and Black seas through which European trade, travelers and culture could enter Russia. Before he died, he had gotten an outlet on the Baltic Sea, though he failed to get one on the Black Sea. Peter visited various European countries (Holland, England, Austria) to study the civilization of Europe. Upon his return to Russia he introduced many reforms. He ordered Russians to wear European-styled clothing, ordered the cutting off of beards, and the shortening of robes. He improved the calendar, adopted the western system of counting, set up printing presses and established schools and hospitals. Those who objected to these changes were killed or exiled; his own son was also purged. Finally, the Greek Orthodox Church was brought under the Czar's control and became the Russian Orthodox Church.

From Sweden, Peter gained the territories of Estonia, Livonia and Ingria after a long, bitter war (1700-21). At the mouth of the Neva River, near the Gulf of Finland, he built a new westernized capital, and named it after himself—St. Petersburg (later it was changed to Petrograd and is now called Leningrad)

Catherine the Great—Absolute Ruler of Russia. Catherine (1762-96) thought of herself as an "enlightened (informed) despot." She encouraged artists and writers, built hospitals and orphanages, planned to revise the Russian code of laws, and felt sorry for the poor Russian serfs. Her reforms, however, existed more on paper than in practice. Under her the Russian government was as autocratic as ever, and the serfs even more wretched than before.

In foreign affairs, Catherine took part in the three partitions of Poland (1772, 1793 and 1795), and acquired about 6,000,000 people and 183,000 square miles. From the Turks she gained Azov (1774), the Crimean Peninsula (1784) and the lands along the Black Sea (1792). She also won the right to protect the Christians in the

Turkish Empire and have free navigation through the Dardanelles.

Thus Catherine made Russia a great power. Its boundaries now contained not only Russians, but also Ukrainians, Lithuanians, Estonians, Letts, and Poles. It had increased its territory and gained ports on the Black Sea in addition to the seaports on the Baltic Sea.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. At the end of Louis XIV's reign, France was (a) in control of all western Europe, (b) more democratic than England, (c) strengthened by years of peace, (d) threatened by bankruptcy. 1.
2. The power of the English kings was first limited by the (a) Bill of Rights, (b) cabinet system, (c) Magna Carta, (d) Petition of Right. 2.
3. Which one of the following occurred *first*? (a) American Revolution, (b) Glorious Revolution, (c) execution of Charles I, (d) Model Parliament. 3.
4. The divine right theory of monarchy in France reached its height during the reign of (a) Charlemagne, (b) Louis XIV, (c) Napoleon III, (d) William of Normandy. 4.
5. The British constitution is unusual because it (a) is an unwritten constitution, (b) has remained unchanged for over a century, (c) was patterned after the Constitution of the United States, (d) became the model for many Latin American constitutions. 5.
6. A program for the westernization of Russia was inaugurated by (a) Czar Alexander I, (b) Catherine the Great, (c) Peter the Great, (d) Czar Nicholas I. 6.
7. An outstanding event during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I of England was the (a) signing of the Petition of Right, (b) American Revolution, (c) establishment of Ireland's independence, (d) defeat of the Spanish Armada. 7.
8. At the end of the 18th Century, Poland ceased to be an independent state after being divided by Prussia, Austria and (a) France, (b) Russia, (c) Sweden, (d) Great Britain. 8.
9. The Glorious Revolution was a step in the growth of democracy in (a) England, (b) France, (c) Italy, (d) Ireland. 9.
10. The British cabinet is responsible to the (a) Church, (b) Crown, (c) House of Commons, (d) House of Lords. 10.
11. The English Bill of Rights (1689) provided for (a) direct democracy, (b) limited monarchy, (c) religious toleration, (d) universal manhood suffrage. 11.
12. Which one of these nations was the *first* to become a national state? (a) Belgium, (b) France, (c) Germany, (d) Italy. 12.
13. Much against my will, I signed a royal charter in 1215 agreeing not to imprison any British nobleman except upon the "lawful judgment of his peers." I am (a) Edward I, (b) George III, (c) Richard II, (d) John. 13.

14. I was a leader of the Puritan army that overthrew the tyrannical Charles I. In 1649 I became head of a republic in England known as the Commonwealth. I am (a) Oliver Cromwell, (b) Edmund Burke, (c) Simon de Montfort, (d) Lord Nelson. 14.
15. "I have come to you on a message from God, to bring help to you and to your kingdom." This greeting was made to the Dauphin of France by (a) Lafayette, (b) Joan of Arc, (c) Marie Antoinette, (d) William of Normandy. 15.
16. A result of the Norman conquest of England was the (a) fusion of French and English customs, (b) beginnings of the English navy, (c) loss of the English throne to Danish kings, (d) introduction of Christianity to England. 16.
17. By 1700 France had become one of the most powerful nations in Europe as a result of (a) the special privileges granted to nobles, (b) support from the peasant class, (c) policy of peace and neutrality, (d) the centralization of authority. 17.
18. According to the Habeas Corpus Act, an Englishman has the right to (a) petition the government, (b) elect representatives to Parliament, (c) demand a statement of charges against him if arrested, (d) vote without property qualifications. 18.
19. An important event that occurred in Russia during the reign of Peter the Great was the (a) construction of a new capital city, (b) creation of a Parliament, (c) abolition of serfdom, (d) defeat of the Mongols. 19.
20. A policy of Russian Czars was to gain control of (a) Singapore, (b) Gibraltar, (c) Hong Kong, (d) the Dardanelles. 20.
21. The British writer John Locke justified the Revolution of 1688 on the grounds that (a) kings hold power by divine right, (b) government is unnecessary, (c) government is a contract between the ruler and the ruled, (d) a ruler should be responsible to the House of Lords. 21.
22. The Battle of Hastings, the *Domesday Book* and the Salisbury Oath are associated with (a) William the Conqueror, (b) Henry VIII, (c) Charles I, (d) James I. 22.
23. The Magna Carta (1215) is an important English document because it (a) limited the king's power, (b) established a democratic government, (c) extended suffrage, (d) established a House of Commons. 23.
24. Which statement gives an opinion rather than a fact? (a) Magna Carta marks the beginning of democratic government in England. (b) In 1689 the Bill of Rights was proclaimed in England. (c) Oliver Cromwell's forces defeated the army of Charles I. (d) England's Parliament is composed of two houses. 24.
25. The English Bill of Rights (1689) provided for the (a) creation of a cabinet system, (b) decrease in the power of the House of Lords, (c) establishment of the supremacy of Parliament, (d) extension of suffrage to landlords. 25.
26. Catherine the Great of Russia ruled about the same time as (a) Frederick the Great of Prussia, (b) Louis XIV in France, (c) Queen Isabella in Spain, (d) Queen Elizabeth I in England. 26.

27. I was considered one of the enlightened despots of 18th Century Europe. Besides making my country a leading military power, I helped to advance agriculture, trade and industry. I am (a) William the Conqueror, (b) Henry VIII, (c) Frederick the Great, (d) Napoleon III. 27. _____
28. An important cause of the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453) was a dispute over (a) land in western France, (b) succession to the English throne, (c) colonization in North America, (d) the supremacy of the Pope. 28. _____
29. Which document established the supremacy of the British Parliament? (a) Magna Carta, (b) Bill of Rights (1689), (c) Parliament Act (1911), (d) Habeas Corpus Act. 29. _____
30. Louis XIV built Versailles to provide a (a) theater for the performance of French plays and operas, (b) residence for the royal family, (c) museum for French art, (d) summer palace for the Popes. 30. _____
31. Which nations were rivals in the Hundred Years' War? (a) England and Holland, (b) England and France, (c) France and Portugal, (d) France and Spain. 31. _____
32. Which event took place during the reign of Henry VIII of England? (a) burning of Joan of Arc, (b) defeat of the Spanish Armada, (c) signing of the Bill of Rights, (d) separation of the English Church from the Roman Catholic Church. 32. _____
33. Which was the most powerful nation in Europe during the greater part of the 16th Century? (a) England, (b) France, (c) Holland, (d) Spain. 33. _____
34. In 18th-Century Europe, autocratic rulers based their claim to rule on (a) the consent of their subjects, (b) their opposition to the Church, (c) the theory of divine right, (d) constitutional powers. 34. _____
35. The Hundred Years' War led to (a) a spirit of nationalism in France and England, (b) the defeat of Carthage by Rome, (c) the downfall of the Roman Empire, (d) the loss of the Holy Land. 35. _____
36. The trial by jury system that we use today has come to us from (a) the Frankish kingdom, (b) England, (c) Germany, (d) Christianity. 36. _____
37. Of the following, which is the most accurate listing of the peoples who made up the English population after 1100? (a) Celts, Scots, Angles, Lombards; (b) Angles, Saxons, Normans, Celts; (c) Franks, Danes, Angles, Lombards; (d) Welsh, Danes, Scots, Moors. 37. _____
38. Parliament's power in England grew out of (a) its power to act as a court, (b) its power over the purse, (c) its power to depose the king, (d) its democracy. 38. _____
39. Unification of Spain was completed through the marriage of (a) Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, (b) Louis XIV and Marie de Montespan, (c) Ferdinand and Isabella, (d) Catherine and Paul. 39. _____
40. Peter the Great was successful in securing a seaport for Russia from (a) Austria, (b) Sweden, (c) Turkey, (d) Bulgaria. 40. _____

MATCHING TEST 1

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I	II
_____ 1. Henry VIII	a. first Norman ruler of England
_____ 2. Edward I	b. invited representatives of towns to the Great Council
_____ 3. Henry II	c. divine right monarch in England
_____ 4. William of Normandy	d. Model Parliament
_____ 5. John	e. executed by Parliament
_____ 6. Simon de Montfort	f. Magna Carta
_____ 7. Elizabeth I	g. first British Prime Minister
_____ 8. James I	h. leader of the New Model army
_____ 9. Oliver Cromwell	i. often-married king
_____ 10. Sir Robert Walpole	j. defeat of the Spanish Armada
	k. Glorious Revolution
	l. jury system and common law

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. King William ordered a survey of landholding in England; the findings were recorded in the _____ Book.
2. The king who created a grand jury system was _____.
3. The terrible epidemic that swept Europe in the 15th Century was the _____.
4. Queen _____ established Anglicanism as the official religion of England.
5. In 1688 a bloodless revolution in England called the _____ took place.

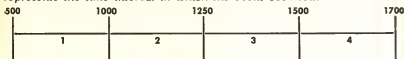
MATCHING TEST 2

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I	II
_____ 1. Philip IV	a. Spanish parliament
_____ 2. Estates General	b. toleration for Huguenots
_____ 3. Agincourt	c. enlightened despot of Russia
_____ 4. Edict of Nantes	d. "I am the State"
_____ 5. Richelieu	e. great minister of Louis XIII
_____ 6. Mazarin	f. French parliament
_____ 7. Louis XIV	g. made Prussia a leading state in Europe
_____ 8. Cortes	h. union of Aragon and Castile
_____ 9. Frederick the Great	i. subdued French nobles in the Fronde
_____ 10. Catherine the Great	j. French defeat in the 100 Years' War
	k. taxed church lands in France

TIME CHRONOLOGY TEST

On the following line the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, represent time intervals. Write on the line at the left of each event listed below the letter that represents the time interval in which the event occurred.



- (a) Spanish Armada defeated
- (b) Hugh Capet becomes King of France
- (c) Charles I executed
- (d) Alfred the Great fights the Danes
- (e) Martin Luther posts his 95 Theses
- (f) Magna Carta signed
- (g) Hundred Years' War fought
- (h) Glorious Revolution in England
- (i) Moors invade Spain
- (j) jury system established in England



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Explain how each of the following contributed to the growth of democracy in England: (a) Magna Carta, (b) Bill of Rights, (c) development of the cabinet system.

2. Show how each of the following women achieved importance in history: (a) Joan of Arc, (b) Elizabeth I of England, (c) Isabella of Spain, (d) Catherine the Great of Russia.

3. Discuss the truth or falsity of each of the following statements giving facts to support your point of view: (a) Magna Carta limited the powers of the English king. (b) The development of the English parliament was a slow and gradual process. (c) Louis XIV made France the strongest European country of the 17th Century. (d) Peter the Great introduced western customs into Russia. (e) The benevolent despots of 18th Century Europe did some good for their people. (f) The Elizabethan Age marked the emergence of the cultural and naval power of England.

4. Show how each of the following invaders influenced the history of England: (a) the Romans, (b) the Angles and Saxons, (c) the Normans.

5. Among the great leaders of French national development were the following. What did each do? (a) Philip the Fair, (b) Henry IV, (c) Joan of Arc, (d) Richelieu, (e) Mazarin.

6. Why was Spain the most powerful nation in Europe in the 16th Century? Describe two reasons for its decline in power.

7. "Scratch a Russian and you will find a Tartar." (a) What does this statement mean? (b) Why was Russia a semi-Oriental state up to the end of the 17th Century? (c) How did Peter the Great and Catherine the Great help to westernize Russia?

8. (a) As an enlightened despot, show how Frederick the Great of Prussia improved his country economically. (b) Describe the methods by which Frederick made Prussia a leading military state.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

6. The 18th and 19th Centuries

"Life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" were the goal of peoples in all parts of the world. Wars and revolutions brought poverty and misery for millions, but won the liberty we hold so dear.



NEWTON



AMERICAN REVOLUTION



STEAM ENGINE



FRENCH REVOLUTION



NAPOLEON



BISMARCK



VOLTAIRE



BOLIVAR



BEETHOVEN



WASHINGTON

The American colonists fought their war for independence against the British, and set up a democratic government under George Washington. The French Revolution saw the end of the French kings and the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte. Bismarck became the strong man of the Germans and Bolívar led the Spanish colonists in South America in revolt against Spain.

With liberty came industrial growth and progress in education. The invention of the steam engine revolutionized business. Napoleon's system of public education became a model for other countries.

Out of a people's misery came the great literature that forced social reform. Out of the stirrings of national consciousness came great music and art.

Out of these struggles came the Declaration of the Rights of Man — a gain that endured even after this period of upheaval had ended.



The French Revolution

1. The Old Regime

The Old Regime (rah-zheem') is a term that describes the system of society and government that existed in Europe during the 18th Century. The key words that described the Old Regime were *privileged*, *absolute* and *unjust*. There was a *privileged* society, an *absolute* government and an *unjust* system of taxation. Since these conditions can best be seen in France, and since the revolutions that were to change them and introduce the modern democratic state began there, we will examine that country more closely.

Society Under the Old Regime. France with the exception of Russia was the largest state in Europe. Its population in the late 18th Century was about 25,000,000. The people were divided into two broad classes—the privileged and the unprivileged.

Class	Number	Privileges	Exemptions
Privileged a. First Estate (Clergy)	130,000	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Collected Church tax (tithe). 2. Supervised education, publication of books and pamphlets. 3. Registered births, deaths and marriages. 4. Represented the State (official) religion. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Paid no taxes, although owning 1/5 of the land in France. 2. Could not be tried in civil law courts.
b. Second Estate (Nobility)	110,000	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Collected taxes (feudal dues). 2. Monopolized appointments in state and military service. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Paid no taxes, although owners of 1/5 of the land.
Unprivileged Third Estate (bourgeoisie, professionals, workers, peasants)	24,750,000	None.	None. The burden of taxation fell upon this class (see page 168).

The privileged classes (First and Second Estates) enjoyed a position of influence in France that was far out of proportion to their size. The king depended on these groups for support. Since most of the upper clergy (the bishops, abbots and cardinals) were of noble birth, the interests of these two classes were closely linked. The parish priests, on the other hand, usually enjoyed no more privileges than did the people whom they served. Thus, they had more in common with the unprivileged than with the privileged classes.

The Third Estate included all the people who did not belong to the two upper classes. It included 99% of the population and was divided into three groups: (1) the bourgeoisie (boor-zhwah-zee') or businessmen, including such professionals as doctors, lawyers and writers; (2) the workers, or artisans; and (3) the peasants.

The peasants, who made up the bulk of the Third Estate, led miserable lives—they were overtaxed, controlled by the groups above them, bound to the soil—and had no voice in the government. They had no influence on the laws under which they lived.

The workers in the town were but little better off than the peasants. Their wages were low, they lived in poor and crowded homes, their working conditions were bad, and under the law they could not strike or join unions.

Many of the middle class, or bourgeoisie, were educated and capable. But they had no voice in the government, although they were occasionally appointed as judges. Sometimes they were even given titles, enabling them to join the ranks of the lower nobility.

Government Under the Old Regime. During this period the government of France was under an absolute monarchy. All powers were in the hands of the king, who ruled by "divine right." Although France had a Legislature representing the three classes (the Estates-General), it had very little power and was called into session only when the king wanted it. At the time of the French Revolution (1789) it had not met since 1614.

The absolute rule of the French king is shown by the following:

1. He issued all the laws, in the form of decrees (king's orders).
2. He levied all the taxes, collected them and spent the money.
3. He declared and carried on war, raised armies and made peace.
4. His laws were carried out by his appointees, whom he could dismiss whenever he pleased.
5. By appointing all the judges, he controlled justice.
6. He could jail anyone for any length of time without trial through blank warrants of arrest, called *lettres de cachet*, which gave no reason for the arrest.
7. He appointed and controlled the *Intendants*, or governors of the 30 districts into which France was divided. These were often called the "thirty petty tyrants" of France.

Economic Conditions Were Bad Under the Old Regime. France was basically agricultural; most of the people earned their livelihood from farming. The heaviest taxes fell upon the peasant who lived in a small hut with a dirt floor. His tools were simple; his food was plain and poor. He could not read or write; his pleasures consisted of going to church, attending a wedding, or a funeral.

The workers in the city were not much better off. The guilds controlled production of goods, and barred most workers from membership. Monopolies were encouraged, new and better methods of production discouraged. Wages were low, hours long and conditions of work miserable. The government regulated and restricted industry and commerce.

The king spent money recklessly. He often had to borrow more money to support his wild spending. The groups within the Third Estate paid taxes; the other two Estates collected them.

Here are some of the more important taxes that were paid by the ordinary people of France: (1) The *tithe* was collected by the Church. (2) The nobility collected *feudal dues* for the use of the lord's oven, winepress, etc. (3) The king collected the *taille* (land tax), the *vingtième* (income tax), the *gabelle* (salt tax), the *capitation* (poll tax), the *corvée* (forced roadwork) and the *octroi* (taxes on goods brought into town).

2. The Philosophy Behind the Revolution

The Age of Reason—the Intellectual Revolution. The 18th Century in Europe is known as the Age of Reason. Thinkers and writers began to attack some of the abuses of the Old Regime. This intellectual stirring up was led by a group of French writers who insisted that reason and logic must govern human conduct rather than tradition and authority. They did much to undermine the position of king and Church and to raise doubts about the Old Regime. In short, they laid the groundwork for the revolutionary struggles to come.

WRITERS OF THE AGE OF REASON

Name and Dates	Chief Works	Destructive Criticism	Constructive Criticism
Voltaire (voll-tair') 1694-1778 French	<i>Letters on the English</i> ; <i>Candide</i>	Attacked the absolutism of French king and the position of the Church.	Favored creation of a limited monarchy and freedom of speech, press and religion.

Montesquieu (mahn-tes-kyu') 1689-1755 French	<i>Spirit of Laws</i>	Attacked French absolutism.	Advocated executive, legislative and judicial functions of government be in three separate branches; checks and balance system.
Rousseau (roo-soh') 1712-78 French	<i>The Social Contract; Emile</i>	Attacked divine right monarchy; attacked formal system of education.	Favored popular sovereignty, with government based on the will of the people. Favored greater freedom in education and a "back-to-nature" method of simple living.
Diderot (dee-droh') 1713-84 French	<i>Encyclopedia Editor</i>	Summarized latest knowledge in all fields, with sharp attacks on many aspects of the Old Regime.	Suggested reforms in government, economics, civil liberties and other fields.
Beccaria (bek-kah-ree'ah) 1738-1794 Italian	<i>Crimes and Punishments</i>	Attacked harsh administration of justice.	Proposed graduated system of punishments according to the severity of the crime committed.
Adam Smith 1723-90 Scotch	<i>Wealth of Nations</i>	A Scotchman who attacked restrictions on industry and commerce.	Favored free trade and <i>laissez-faire</i> (hands-off) attitude by government.

How These Writers Influenced French Thought. Although censorship of the press existed in the various European countries (generally under the control of the Church), it was not well enforced. The works of these writers enjoyed, therefore, fairly wide circulation, particularly among the middle classes of France. Their ideas were also studied by English colonists in America.

3. Causes of the Revolution

What Were the Basic Causes of the Revolution? The fundamental causes of the French Revolution may be summarized as follows:

- 1 Absolute government.
- 2 Privileges for the few, poverty for the many
- 3 Unjust and heavy taxation.
- 4 Influence of the writers who exposed the Old Regime.
- 5 Restrictions on trade and commerce through mercantilism.
- 6 Luxury and leisure of the upper classes compared with the hard work and misery of the majority
- 7 The growing wealth of the French bourgeoisie made them an increasingly important group in France. They wanted two major changes: (1) business freedom and (2) participation in government. Both had been denied them by the Old Regime.
8. The influence of the English Glorious Revolution (1688-89) and American Revolution (1776-83). These, by limiting the power of the king and gaining freedom from tyranny, encouraged Frenchmen.

Immediate Causes of the Revolution. The immediate cause of the French Revolution was the bankruptcy of the country. The wars and court extravagances of Louis XIV and Louis XV had left their successor Louis XVI (1774-1792) with an empty treasury. Louis XVI faced the problem with little support from his Austrian-born wife, Marie Antoinette (ahn-twon-net'), or his courtiers and advisors.

His financial ministers, including Turgot (tur-go') and Necker (nehk'-er), could not cope with the Queen and her spendthrift friends. Turgot (1774-76) wanted to abolish the *corvée* (road work) and internal tariffs, lower other taxes and reduce pensions to nobles. Furthermore, he wanted more freedom of speech for all. However, most of his reform ideas were rejected and Turgot had to resign. Necker (1776-81), who succeeded Turgot as finance minister, borrowed more money, some of which was used to help defeat Britain in the American Revolution. This further reduced the treasury. Necker insisted that court extravagance must end and the privileged classes be taxed. For this, he too was dismissed. His successor, Calonne (1783-86) was no more successful in solving the financial problem. His suggestion that the privileged classes permit themselves to be taxed was rejected by the Assembly of Notables (1787).

By 1788 the government was in a desperate position. Popular protest mounted and as a last resort Louis XVI called a session of the Estates-General, which had not met since 1614. He did not want any reforms; he just wanted to fill his treasury.

The Cahiers. Elections to the Estates-General were held during the winter of 1788-89. In accordance with old custom the voters drew up recommendations for reform. These *cahiers* (ka-yaye), or lists of grievances, were moderate in tone, expressing loyalty to the king,

but asking for changes—such as abolition of censorship, the ending of restrictions on trade and commerce, and reductions in taxes.

In effect, this was a granting of freedom of thought, and it resulted in free discussion of all the faults of the Old Regime.

The Estates-General Argues Over Voting. In this body, each estate—First, Second and Third—voted as one unit. Thus, the First and Second Estates (the two privileged classes) could outvote the Third Estate by two to one. Actually, the Third Estate, which represented 99% of the population, had little voice in the government.

The Estates-General was called into special session to save France from bankruptcy on May 5, 1789. Immediately, the problem of voting arose. Led by Count Mirabeau (mee-rah-bo') and Abbé Sièyes (syay-yays'), the Third Estate demanded that voting in the Estates-General be "by head" rather than by unit. It wanted the three Estates to sit together as one body, rather than as three separate units. Thus, they could take advantage of the greater number of representatives of the Third Estate. There seemed to be no solution to this problem.

The Tennis Court Oath. Deadlocked on the question of voting, the Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly. An angry king met the challenge by locking them out of the meeting hall. The representatives moved to a nearby tennis court and took the *Tennis Court Oath*. Under this oath the members swore not to disband until they had drawn up a written constitution for France. This event marked the end of the divine right of kings and the beginning of rule by the will of the people (popular sovereignty). Three days later the king gave in and ordered the three Estates to sit together as the National Assembly (June 23, 1789).

Periods of the French Revolution. The French Revolutionary period may be divided into four parts, each taking its name from the body that governed at the moment. These were:

- A. The National Assembly—1789-1791.
- B. The Constituent Assembly—1791-92.
- C. The Convention—1792-95
- D. The Directory—1795-99

A. The National Assembly—1789-1791

The Bastille. Louis XVI had no intention of bowing before the National Assembly. He was determined to use soldiers to force the Assembly to bend to his will. News of this plan raced throughout Paris and on July 14th, 1789, the people of Paris attacked the Bastille (bas-tee') to secure arms and free the jailed political pris-

oners. The Bastille, always a symbol of tyranny, was destroyed. July 14th is still celebrated by the French as their Independence Day (the equivalent of the American 4th of July).

The Parisians organized their own local government, called the Commune, and a militia, the National Guard (under the Marquis de Lafayette). With the news of the fall of the Bastille, violence broke out in various parts of France.

Peasants attacked their local prisons (the chateaus and castles of the nobles), destroyed feudal records and drove many nobles into the towns or out of the country. Local governments were established to replace the royal governors. In Paris the king accepted the tricolor (blue, white and red) as the new flag of France, to replace the old fleur-de-lis flag of the Bourbon kings.



CITIZENS OF FRANCE STORM THE BASTILLE. Paris mobs, sick and tired of their king, marched on the Bastille on July 14, 1789, in search of guns and freed its seven prisoners. The red, white and blue cockade in the hat of this marcher is the symbol of liberty.

In October rumors were spread that the king was bringing foreign troops to Versailles to put down the Assembly. An army of half-starved Parisians, mostly women, marched to Versailles demanding bread. The mob forced Louis XVI and his family to move to Paris, and the National Assembly followed in a few days. The people of Paris were now able to keep a better eye on the government and its actions.

The National Assembly Makes Sweeping Changes. This body, representing mainly the interests of the bourgeoisie, was now the real master of France. The Old Regime was gone; the king's powers were severely limited. Here are some of the most important adoptions and reforms of the National Assembly:

1. Declaration of the Rights of Man
2. Abolition of special privileges
3. Local government reform
4. Constitution of 1791



Similar to the American Declaration of Independence, it proclaimed *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity*—the motto of the Revolution—and stressed freedom of speech, press and religion, the right to a fair trial, the right to make laws directly or through their representatives, and guarantee of property rights of the people.

All feudal privileges were abolished. Tithes were abolished, Church lands taken over by the government and censorship ended. A *Civil Constitution of the Clergy* was passed which provided for election of bishops and priests by the people and payment of their salaries by the state. The clergy had to swear to support this new constitution. Two-thirds refused and fled. Their lands were seized, broken up and sold in small parcels to peasants, thus creating many new landowners.

The old provinces were destroyed and replaced by 83 *departments*, with their governors elected by the people. A new system of law courts was established, with judges elected by the people.

After two years of work, the National Assembly fulfilled its promise in the Tennis Court Oath not to adjourn until a new constitution had been written. The new constitution changed France into a limited monarchy. The king lost his control over the army, the clergy and local government. The Legislative Assembly—a one-house body—had the power to make all laws and was elected indirectly. However, only taxpayers could vote and only property owners could hold office. Thus, the majority were still without the right to vote.

With these reforms, feudalism in Europe was given a crushing blow and the new power group was the bourgeoisie. The first phase of the French Revolution was over. Nevertheless, the changes were conservative and the king was still head of the state.

B. The Constituent Assembly—1791-1792

The New Government Meets Opposition. The limited monarchy set up under the 1791 Constitution did not last very long. Hardly anybody was satisfied with it.

1. The *king* tried to get help from his brother-in-law, the King of Austria, and other European monarchs to regain power. In June, 1791, he and his family fled to Austria but were captured near the border.
2. The *nobles* lost their special privileges, and many of them fled. From abroad these *émigrés* plotted the overthrow of the new government.
3. The *clergy* resented the loss of Church lands and influence, and the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. They won some devout peasants to their side.
4. The *peasants* resented the fact that the Constitution did not give them the right to vote or to hold office.
5. *Political parties* were not pleased with the way the revolution was going.
 - a. *The Girondists* (ji-rah-n'dists), a moderate republican party, represented the provinces. They belonged to the rich middle class and advocated liberal reforms.
 - b. *The Jacobins*, a more radical group led by Marat (mah-rat'), Danton (dahn-tohn') and Robespierre (ro-bes-pyayr'), also favored a republic, more power for the working class groups and an end to the monarchy.

Foreign Countries Invade France. The Austrian, Prussian and other kings feared that a successful French Revolution might inspire their own people to revolt. In 1792, Prussian and Austrian troops, led by the Duke of Brunswick, invaded France. The Duke warned that unless the monarchy were restored he would destroy Paris and kill its people. This led to more violence. The Commune of Paris, under Danton's leadership, took over the government of the city.

On August 10, 1792, Parisian workers seized the royal family. The Assembly suspended the king from his duties and ordered new elections in which every man could vote for a Convention which would draw up a republican constitution for France. With the invaders nearing Paris, hatred against nobles rose higher. In early September, several thousand nobles were executed in Paris on the news that the foreign invaders had captured Verdun.

C. The Convention—1792-1795

The New Government Faces Trouble. At its first meeting on September 22, 1792, the Convention abolished the monarchy and set up the First French Republic. It ordered the trial of Louis XVI and his family on the grounds of treason. The trial ended with Louis' execution by guillotine on January 21, 1793. Fourteen months later Queen Marie Antoinette and her children were guillotined.

England, Holland, Spain and Sardinia now joined the coalition

against the French. These rulers were determined to end the threat to their own rule represented by the French Revolution. Thus, the Convention was faced with a triple task: defeating the invaders, crushing opposition at home and creating a new government.

The Invaders Are Beaten. The Convention called upon all Frenchmen to help fight the foreigners. Frenchmen were drafted into the army and whipped into shape under the guidance of Carnot (kar-no'), French statesman and general. The people supported the government. A stirring song written by Rouget de Lisle, the *Marseillaise* (mar-seh-yaiz'), became the national anthem of the French as they marched against the enemy.

Within the next two years the foreigners were driven out of France, the Coalition against the French was broken and the French frontiers had been extended to the Rhine and the Alps.

Opposition Is Crushed at Home—the Reign of Terror. The Convention created special bodies to deal with opposition at home. A *Committee of Public Safety*, consisting of 12 members with strong powers, led by Danton and later by Robespierre, led a bloody campaign to put down threats against the French Republic. A special court, the Revolutionary Tribunal, tried people accused of treason. During this Reign of Terror about 15,000 persons of all classes were guillotined.

The Girondists and Jacobins violently opposed each other over the question of continuing the Terror. When the Girondists tried to bring the Reign of Terror to an end, their leaders were called traitors, tried and executed. Even Danton, sickened by the bloodshed, was denounced and executed, leaving his rival Robespierre in control of the government. For several months the executions continued.

In July, 1794, the Convention, blaming Robespierre for the Terror, sent him to the guillotine. With his death the Reign of Terror ended. The Revolution was saved for France, and France was victorious in Europe. The Convention now turned to the job of drawing up a new government for France.

The New Government—the Directory. The Constitution of the Year III of the Republic (1795) created a government called the *Directory*. The executive branch consisted of five Directors, appointed by the Legislature. The Legislature was *bicameral* (having two houses). The lower house consisted of 500 members to propose laws, and the upper house of 250 members to examine and act upon them. The bourgeoisie was back in power again—the radicals were turned out. Only property owners could vote and hold office. The Convention ruled that two-thirds of the new legislature should consist of members of the Convention. Thus, voters had little direct voice in the government.

The people of Paris did not like these undemocratic laws and attacked the Convention. They were met by a "whiff of grapeshot" from artillery under the command of a young lieutenant named Napoleon Bonaparte. This was Napoleon's first step in his rise to power.

Other Reforms of the Convention. The Convention enacted several other reforms:

1. It adopted the metric system of weights and measures.
2. It drew up a comprehensive code of laws, later completed by Napoleon.
3. It ended imprisonment for debt.
4. Negro slavery in the French colonies was abolished.
5. It abolished the system of primogeniture, under which the eldest son inherited his father's entire estate.
6. It established a new national system of public education (to be furthered by Napoleon).

D. The Directory—1795-1799

Misrule Under the Directory. For four years the Directory attempted to govern France, but extravagance, corruption and inflation combined to aggravate the poverty that existed throughout the country. The one ray of sunshine was in the field of foreign wars. There, under the generalship of Napoleon Bonaparte, a series of resounding victories served to sustain the Directory for a while. In 1799 Napoleon returned to France a hero and overthrew the Directory. This ended the period of the French Revolution.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. The destruction of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, was a significant event in the French Revolution because it (a) freed hundreds of philosophers who became leaders of the Revolution, (b) provided the revolutionists with large quantities of arms, (c) removed a hated symbol of despotism, (d) gave the revolutionists a strong fortress in Paris. 1. _____
2. Which were the two privileged classes in France before the Revolution? (a) nobility and peasants, (b) nobility and clergy, (c) nobility and bourgeoisie, (d) clergy and bourgeoisie. 2. _____
3. Which class was most powerful in France immediately after the Reign of Terror? (a) nobility, (b) clergy, (c) middle class, (d) peasants. 3. _____

4. The legislative body of France before the French Revolution of 1789 was the (a) National Assembly, (b) Parliament, (c) Third Estate, (d) Estates-General. 4.
5. The last French king under the Old Regime was (a) Louis XV, (b) Louis XVI, (c) Louis Philippe, (d) Louis Napoleon. 5.
6. A writer whose ideas influenced the Declaration of the Rights of Man was (a) Rousseau, (b) Robespierre, (c) Richelieu, (d) Victor Hugo. 6.
7. An important cause of the French Revolution (1789) was the (a) unfair system of taxation, (b) abdication of the King, (c) abolition of feudalism, (d) persecution of the Huguenots. 7.
8. The first act of violence during the French Revolution was the (a) guillotining of Danton, (b) execution of Marie Antoinette, (c) coup d'état, (d) storming of the Bastille. 8.
9. The author of the *Social Contract* was (a) Rousseau, (b) Voltaire, (c) Locke, (d) Jefferson. 9.
10. The fundamental cause of the French Revolution of 1789 was the (a) Reign of Terror, (b) attempted flight of the king, (c) fear of foreign invasion, (d) abuses of the Old Regime. 10.
11. The free flow of goods unhampered by government regulations was the basis of an economic theory advocated in the *Wealth of Nations* by (a) Robert Owen, (b) Adam Smith, (c) Karl Marx, (d) Thomas Malthus. 11.
12. "Men are born and remain equal in rights. Law is the expression of the general will" is stated in the (a) United Nations charter, (b) English Bill of Rights, (c) Magna Carta, (d) French Declaration of the Rights of Man. 12.
13. Which of the following taxes is *not* associated with the group which collected it? (a) taille — the King, (b) octroi — the bourgeoisie, (c) feudal dues — the nobles, (d) tithe — the Church, (e) gabelle — the King. 13.
14. A permanent result of the French Revolution of 1789 was the (a) abolition of the feudal class system, (b) establishment of a two-party system of government, (c) loss of French overseas empire, (d) destruction of the bourgeoisie. 14.
15. Foreign intervention during the French Revolution helped to bring about the (a) occupation of France by England, (b) establishment of an absolute monarchy, (c) Reign of Terror, (d) destruction of radical groups. 15.
16. In their writings Voltaire and Rousseau emphasized the (a) superiority of the French nation, (b) opportunities for world domination by France, (c) deeds of French heroes, (d) injustices of the times in France. 16.
17. Which best explains why the revolt against the Old Regime began in France earlier than in Central Europe? (a) there was greater suffering in France, (b) punishment for revolt was less severe in France, (c) the king's power was more absolute in France, (d) the middle class was more numerous and enlightened in France. 17.
18. The fall of the Bastille was important because this event was (a) a military victory of France over Austria, (b) a symbol of the grow-

- ing power of the people, (c) the final act of violence of the revolution, (d) a step in Napoleon Bonaparte's rise to power. 18.
19. The radicals of the French Revolution were known as (a) bourgeoisie, (b) émigrés, (c) Girondists, (d) Jacobins. 19.
20. During the French Revolution Robespierre and Danton favored the establishment of (a) a republic, (b) a limited monarchy, (c) an absolute monarchy, (d) a confederation. 20.
21. Which group of people in France belonged to the First Estate? (a) bourgeoisie, (b) clergy, (c) nobles, (d) peasants. 21.
22. A road tax payable in forced labor was called a (a) corvée, (b) gabelle, (c) taille, (d) tithe. 22.
23. Which event is celebrated in France on July 14th? (a) the rise to power of Napoleon Bonaparte, (b) fall of the Bastille, (c) nationalization of the Church, (d) execution of Danton. 23.
24. The term "equality," as used in the French Revolution, meant (a) equality of income, (b) equality of ability, (c) equality of land ownership, (d) equality before the law. 24.
25. The term "Old Regime" in France refers to (a) the period when France was a Roman province, (b) medieval times before France became a national state, (c) the 18th Century before the Revolution, (d) the 19th Century. 25.
26. The cahiers were (a) lists of grievances of the French peasants, (b) lists of persons suspected of radical activities, (c) documents demanding the overthrow of the king, (d) documents exchanged between Louis XVI and the other kings of Europe. 26.
27. The executive power during the Reign of Terror was held by the (a) Revolutionary Tribunal, (b) Deputies on Mission, (c) Convention, (d) Committee of Public Safety. 27.
28. Louis XVI called the Estates General together in 1789 to (a) revise the French Constitution, (b) deal with the finances of the government, (c) tax the privileged classes, (d) ratify a treaty with the United States. 28.
29. The French writer who was especially hostile to the Church was (a) Montesquieu, (b) Rousseau, (c) Turgot, (d) Voltaire. 29.
30. The policy of the Reign of Terror was to (a) crush domestic opposition in France, (b) restore the privileged classes to power, (c) re-establish a monarchy in the country, (d) permit the return of the émigrés. 30.
31. The most accurate statement of the relation of Louis XVI to the French Revolution is that he (a) was a principal cause of it, (b) welcomed it, (c) did nothing to prevent it, (d) plotted to bring it about. 31.
32. An outstanding achievement of the National Assembly was to (a) defeat France's foreign enemies, (b) abolish feudalism and serfdom, (c) execute the royal family, (d) appoint Napoleon as Emperor. 32.
33. Which was *not* an aim of the Third Estate in 1789? (a) to overthrow the king, (b) to end injustice and inequality, (c) to gain a voice in the government, (d) to limit the powers of the privileged classes. 33.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I

II

- | | |
|--|--|
| _____ 1. taille | a. foreign born ruler of France |
| _____ 2. Reign of Terror | b. Church tax |
| _____ 3. cahiers | c. favored an end to the policy of terror |
| _____ 4. tithe | d. end of the French Revolution |
| _____ 5. Jacobins | e. leader of the Third Estate |
| _____ 6. Girondists | f. led by Lafayette |
| _____ 7. lettre de cachet | g. land tax collected by the king |
| _____ 8. Marseillaise | h. fall of the Bastille |
| _____ 9. National Guard | i. radical leaders in the Reign of Terror |
| _____ 10. Marie Antoinette | j. nobles who fled from France |
| _____ 11. July 14th | k. French national anthem |
| _____ 12. émigrés | l. expressed loyalty to the king but asked for reforms |
| _____ 13. Montesquieu | m. saved the reforms of the Revolution |
| _____ 14. Civil Constitution of Clergy | n. National Assembly |
| _____ 15. Mirabeau | o. blank warrants of arrest |
| | p. separation of powers |

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. *Leaders of the French Revolution:* (a) Mirabeau, (b) Robespierre, (c) Louis XVI, (d) Sièyes.
2. *Reforms of the National Assembly:* (a) reform of local government, (b) written constitution, (c) abolition of privileges, (d) establishment of educational system.
3. *Abuses of the Old Regime:* (a) written constitution, (b) lettres de cachet, (c) privileged classes, (d) monopoly of offices.
4. *Taxes levied by the French king:* (a) capitation, (b) gabelle, (c) tithe, (d) taille.
5. *Reforms of the Convention:* (a) adoption of the metric system of weights and measures, (b) abolition of slavery in the French colonies, (c) new written constitutions, (d) establishment of peace.
6. *Writers who advocated reform in France:* (a) John Locke, (b) Voltaire, (c) Diderot, (d) Rousseau.
7. *Causes for the fall of the Directory:* (a) instability of the government, (b) loss of Egypt to the English, (c) extravagance and inflation of the currency, (d) corruption in the government.
8. *Purposes of the Reign of Terror:* (a) defeat the foreign invaders, (b) crush internal opposition, (c) create a strong centralized government, (d) restore the monarchy.
9. *Opponents to the limited monarchy of 1791:* (a) the king, (b) the bourgeoisie, (c) the peasants, (d) the clergy.
10. *Associated with the National Assembly:* (a) storming of the Bastille, (b) march of the women on Versailles, (c) execution of Louis XVI, (d) Civil Constitution of the Clergy.

TIME SEQUENCE TEST

The periods of the French Revolution are listed as follows:

1. *The Old Regime, before 1789*
2. *The National Assembly, 1789-91*
3. *The Convention, 1792-95*
4. *The Directory, 1795-99*

Indicate the period in which each of the events listed below took place.

- 1. the storming of the Bastille
- 2. publication of *The Social Contract*
- 3. the writing of the *Marseillaise*
- 4. the Reign of Terror
- 5. the first written constitution of France
- 6. Napoleon's victories in northern Italy
- 7. Louis XVI becomes King of France
- 8. execution of Danton
- 9. Civil Constitution of the Clergy
- 10. Assembly of Notables



FRENCH REVOLUTION

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Describe three effects of the French Revolution of 1789.
2. Discuss the French Revolution including (a) conditions that gave rise to dissatisfaction, (b) leaders, (c) changes that resulted from the Revolution.
3. Although the French Revolution eliminated some of the abuses of the Old Regime, it also opened the door to tyranny. (a) State three abuses of the Old Regime that were eliminated by the French Revolution. (b) Discuss one way in which the French Revolution led to tyranny.
4. "The French Revolution occurred because old institutions did not fit new conditions." Discuss this statement, giving facts to prove or disprove it.
5. What changes did the French Revolution accomplish in each of the following: (a) system of landholding, (b) taxation, (c) government, (d) privileged classes, (e) rise of nationalism, (f) regulation of commerce and industry.
6. How did each of the following influence the French Revolution? (a) Abbé Sièyes, (b) Lafayette, (c) Louis XVI, (d) Danton, (e) Duke of Brunswick.
7. Compare the Declaration of the Rights of Man with the American Declaration of Independence.
8. "The Reign of Terror preserved the gains made in the French Revolution of 1789-91". Show how this statement is true.
9. (a) What permanent changes did the French Revolution bring about in France? (b) How did it affect the other countries of Europe?
10. Discuss the statement: "The French Revolution was a long time in the making." (Include the fundamental and immediate causes of the Revolution in your answer).



The Napoleonic Era

1799-1815

1. *The Rise of Napoleon*

Early Life of Napoleon. Napoleon Bonaparte was born on the island of Corsica in 1769. The second son of a poor nobleman, Napoleon was sent to a French military school on a scholarship. There he specialized in artillery.

During the Revolution he sided with the Jacobins and helped to drive the English out of the important seaport of Toulon. He married a widow, Josephine Beauharnais, and it was through her that he met many of the leaders of the Convention. The opportunity to show his military ability came when he defended the Convention from the Paris mob in 1795, and thus saved the new government of the Directory.

First Italian Campaign—a New National Hero. In 1796—when he was only 27—he was appointed General of the French forces in Italy. His daring tactics, his unlimited enthusiasm, his brilliant generalship inspired his soldiers to heroic efforts. Within a year he had defeated superior Austrian forces and driven them out of northern Italy.

By the Treaty of Campo Formio (1797) France received the Austrian Netherlands (today Belgium) in exchange for the Venetian Republic, and French territory was extended to the Rhine River. As a result of these victories Napoleon became a national hero.

Napoleon Meets Defeat in the Egyptian Campaign. All of the enemies of France, except England, then made peace. Napoleon decided to conquer Egypt, part of the Turkish Empire, which was on the route to England's colony of India. The Directory, glad to get rid of so popular a figure as Napoleon, agreed to his plans. The Egyptian campaign was spectacular but not successful.

The destruction of the French fleet by the English Admiral Nelson at the Battle of the Nile cut off Napoleon's armies from supplies and left him stranded in Egypt. (It was during this campaign that the Rosetta Stone (see page 12) was discovered by one of Napoleon's lieutenants.)

Napoleon Wins France by Force—the Coup d'Etat—1799. News from Paris told Napoleon that the Directory was growing very unpopular. The time was ripe to seize France. He slipped through the blockade and returned to France, leaving his army behind.

While Napoleon was away, things had gone badly for the Directory. A Second Coalition of Britain, Austria and Russia had revived the war against France. French armies had been driven out of Italy, and territory had been lost in northern Europe. A strong hand was needed to rouse the nation.

Napoleon, with the help of the army and some members of the Directory, ousted the government by a *coup d'état*; that is, he seized control of the government by force. He immediately created a new constitution which the people accepted by an overwhelming vote. France remained a republic, under the executive leadership of the First Consul (Napoleon) who was to serve for ten years. In 1802 Napoleon became consul for life and dictator of France.

Why Was Napoleon So Successful? For 15 years Napoleon Bonaparte was the strongest personality in all of France and then in Europe. What accounts for the important role he played?

1. After 10 years of revolution and changes of government, the French were tired of weak rulers and constant political battles.

2. Europe was divided into many small, weak states, which, individually, could not fight off such a bold leader as Napoleon.

3. Napoleon's character stamped him as a leader. He was ambitious, selfish, self-centered, daring and ruthless. He was convinced of his own destiny and he inspired his people to follow him.

4. Napoleon was a military genius whose new and brilliant tactics, personal leadership and ability to inspire his soldiers helped him win victory after victory and make France the leading state on the continent of Europe.



MASTER CHESSMAN. At the height of his power, Napoleon moved his family around like chessmen. He made his brother Louis, King of Holland, his brother Joseph, King of Spain. His sister and brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, ruled Naples. To assure control of Austria, he married Maria Louisa of Austria after having his marriage to Empress Josephine annulled.

2. Napoleon's Reforms

Defeat of the Second Coalition—1801-1802. Napoleon, having become master of France, turned again to his foreign enemies. Russia, won by flattery and diplomacy, withdrew from the Coalition. Austria was defeated at Marengo and Hohenlinden and was forced to sue for peace. By the *Treaty of Luneville* (1801), the terms of Campo Formio (page 181) were re-established, and France was again supreme in Europe. England, left alone against Napoleon, was forced to sign the *Peace of Amiens* (1802). Now, at last France was at peace with her European neighbors.

Napoleon Makes Changes in Government. Napoleon was not satisfied with being First Consul—he wanted to be consul for life. In 1802, by a plebiscite (popular vote) he achieved this aim. In 1804, again by a plebiscite, he changed the Consulate, as the government was called, into an Empire. He was crowned emperor at Paris, with the Pope as witness.

Under the Empire, the French legislature was made up of three bodies—one to discuss laws sent to it by the emperor; a second to vote on these laws without discussion, and a third to decide whether they were constitutional. Thus, Napoleon kept the outward forms of democracy but, actually, his was an absolute government. As Emperor he controlled legislation, took the lead in foreign affairs and leadership of the army. His secret police maintained strict censorship of press and speech.

His Policies at Home—Many Still Exist. Much has been written about Napoleon's military skill, yet little remained of his conquests within a few years of his death. His domestic reforms, on the other hand, were more lasting. Most still exist today and have served as models for changes in other countries.

Napoleon's most important reforms were:

1. **Financial.** Careful collection of taxes; strict economy in government; elimination of corruption; money established on gold basis; the *Bank of France* created to manage the country's finances (still a powerful influence in France).
2. **Legal.** Codification of laws into the *Code Napoléon*, preserving the chief social conquests of the Revolution: (a) equality before the law, (b) religious toleration, (c) abolition of feudalism and its privileges, (d) trial by jury, (e) uniformity of laws throughout France. It became the model for the legal systems of many countries in western Europe (and in the State of Louisiana—once a French colony).
3. **Educational.** New types of schools were created (elementary, grammar, high and special schools). To supervise all these,

and bring education under state control, a *University of France* (similar to the New York State Board of Regents) was created. This marked the beginning of State control of education. The University of France still controls public education.

4. **Governmental.** Local government was reorganized and centralized. Prefects and sub-prefects, to govern the various districts of France, were appointed by Napoleon. They appointed the mayors of towns. This system exists to this day.
5. **Religious.** By the *Concordat of 1801*, Napoleon restored Church influence in France. Napoleon nominated the bishops and the Pope invested them with their office. Priests were appointed by the bishops. Religious toleration was recognized. The Concordat regulated the relations of Church and State in France until 1905.
6. **Social.** Napoleon created the *Legion of Honor*, an honorary society open to any citizen (later foreigners were made eligible) who performed meritorious service regardless of birth, rank or religion. This Legion became the basis for Napoleon's new nobility. To this day, membership in the Legion of Honor is considered France's highest award for service to the State.
7. **Public Works.** Napoleon built many good highways, bridges and canals, drained marshes, enlarged and fortified seaports, and beautified Paris with new buildings and wide avenues.
8. **Colonial Efforts.** Napoleon hoped to restore a French colonial empire. In 1800 he forced Spain to cede him the Louisiana territory in North America. Napoleon, expecting a war with Great Britain, and in need of money, sold Louisiana to the United States. He sent an army to conquer the island of Haiti in the Caribbean. Under Toussaint l'Ouverture and Jean Des-salines, the Haitians defeated the French in 1803. Thus, defeat in Haiti ended Napoleon's dream of an overseas empire.

3. *Napoleon as Master of Europe*

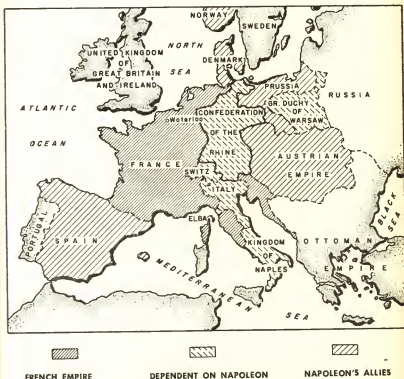
The Third Coalition Is Defeated. Napoleon's control of France was a grave threat to Europe. Led by England, a coalition consisting of Austria, Russia and Sweden, and later Prussia, was organized to fight Napoleon. One at a time Napoleon crushed the coalition until only the British remained. But his dream of an invasion of England was shattered when the combined French and Spanish fleets were destroyed by the English under Lord Nelson at Trafalgar.

In 1808 Napoleon was at the height of his power, with an empire stretching from Spain to the borders of Russia. Prussia and Austria had been reduced in size and power, Russia was an ally, and the smaller states were under his direct or indirect control. Only England, of the major powers, was still free.

4. The Downfall of Napoleon

Why Napoleon Was Defeated. The most important reasons for Napoleon's downfall were: (1) the Continental system; (2) nationalist uprisings; (3) lack of naval strength; (4) weakness of dictatorial rule; (5) the militaristic foundations of his empire; (6) the Russian campaign of 1812.

What Was the Continental System? The destruction of the French fleet at Trafalgar left Napoleon with no means to invade England. Therefore, he tried to defeat her by economic measures. The *Berlin and Milan Decrees* (1806-07) declared the British Isles in a state of blockade. It closed all French and allied ports to ships coming from Britain or her colonies. By stopping British commerce and



EUROPE IN 1810—AT THE HEIGHT OF NAPOLEON'S POWER. Napoleon was now the master of all Europe. With the exception of England, he controlled all of western Europe.

trade with the Continent, Napoleon hoped to force Britain to accept his terms.

The blockade, though only a "paper blockade," cut down European purchases of British goods. England struck back with the *Orders in Council*, which declared that (1) all ships trading with France or her allies would be liable to capture, and also (2) neutral vessels must first stop at an English port to get a license. These steps interfered with American commerce and finally led to the War of 1812 between the United States and England.

This economic warfare caused a great increase in unemployment and business failures. Resentment against Napoleon increased. Smuggling became widespread.

The Peninsular War—the Spanish Revolt. When Portugal refused to join the Continental System, Napoleon sent French troops into that country. He removed its king and put it under the rule of the new King of Spain, his brother Joseph. The Spanish people did not want foreign rule and revolted against the French.

This nationalist uprising continued for years. An English army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, later the Duke of Wellington, landed in Portugal in 1808 to support the Spanish and Portuguese revolt.

Russia Breaks Napoleon's Back. Russia was an ally of Napoleon since 1807, and a supporter of the Continental System. However, Czar Alexander I fretted because Russian grain exports to Britain were halted and Russia could not buy badly needed manufactured goods. Finally, in 1812, the Czar announced that Russia would again trade with England.

If Russia withdrew from the Continental System, it would mean the end of Napoleon's economic efforts to beat England. Napoleon, with an army of almost 600,000 soldiers, invaded Russia in June, 1812. The Russians fell back and Napoleon entered Moscow in September. But the Russians burned the city, leaving him without headquarters for the coming winter months. Lack of supplies, length of his own supply lines, and the impossibility of wintering in the destroyed city, forced Napoleon to evacuate Moscow in October.

His retreat became a rout. Severe weather, the "scorched earth" policy, and continual attacks by Russian troops destroyed almost the entire Napoleonic army. More than half a million men were lost on the steppes of Russia. Napoleon had suffered a defeat from which he never recovered.

Downfall of Napoleon—His Empire Crumbles. A month later, the European nations organized the Fourth Coalition. In 1813 England, Russia, Prussia, Austria and Sweden routed Napoleon at the Battle of Leipzig (often called the "Battle of the Nations").

Now Napoleon's empire in Europe began to fall apart. The Con-

federation of the Rhine was dissolved and the German princes joined the Coalition. King Jerome Bonaparte fled from Westphalia; Holland was freed from French rule; Switzerland, Naples, and the Illyrian provinces broke away from Napoleon's control. In 1814, three large allied armies invaded France. Paris was captured and, two weeks later, Napoleon surrendered. He gave up his throne, and all rights to France for himself and his family and was exiled to the island of Elba, off the coast of Italy.

The Hundred Days—Napoleon Back on the Throne. Napoleon lived on Elba for 10 months. Meanwhile, the victorious nations gathered at Vienna and put Louis XVIII on the French throne. In February, 1815, Napoleon escaped from Elba. He returned to Paris, set himself up again as Emperor and reigned for one hundred days.

The allies reorganized their armies and moved against Napoleon. The two forces met at Waterloo, Belgium, in June, 1815, and Napoleon met defeat again. This time it was the end. He was exiled to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic. He was closely guarded by the British until his death in 1821.

5. Significance of the Napoleonic Era

The Ideas of the Revolution Spread Over Europe. Wherever Napoleon conquered he brought the basic principles of the French Revolution: (1) an end to serfdom and feudalism, (2) religious toleration, (3) equality before the law, and (4) the Napoleonic codes.

Nationalism Grows Stronger. Napoleon's victories strengthened the nationalistic spirit of the French. At the same time they stimulated the patriotic and nationalistic feelings within the countries dominated by the foreign rule of Napoleon. His consolidation of the hundreds of German states and Italian provinces stirred up nationalism which led to their unification as nations.

A Spirit of Militarism Grows. Napoleon's reliance upon military conquests and dependence upon a "nation in arms" rather than a small professional army marked the start of modern militarism. Wars now became national in size. Military conscription (universal training) was adopted in many countries; large standing armies became the rule. Even civilians played a part in the modern warfare that Napoleon helped to bring about.

A Pattern for Future Dictators. The 20th Century saw many attempts to follow in Napoleon's footsteps. He became a model for dictators. His *coup d'état*, centralization of power, censorship of speech and press, secret police, control of education, large armies and "divide-and-conquer" policy were techniques used by modern dictators like Hitler, Mussolini, Horthy, Pilsudski, Stalin and Khrushchev.

Contributions of the Revolutionary Period in France (1789-1815)

- 1. Political.** (a) Decline of divine right monarchy. (b) Spread of the idea of popular sovereignty. (c) Written constitution as a check on royal power. (d) Civil liberties for individuals. (e) Codification of laws. (f) Rise of nationalism. (g) Growth of militarism. (h) A successful revolution on the continent of Europe.
- 2. Social.** (a) End of serfdom and feudalism. (b) Rise to power of the bourgeoisie. (c) Decline in power of the landed aristocracy. (d) End of privileged classes.
- 3. Economic.** (a) Gradual destruction of feudal economy. (b) Abolition of the guilds. (c) Rise of capitalism. (d) Growing influence of the factory owner and worker.
- 4. Religious.** (a) Separation of Church and State in France. (b) Religious toleration.
- 5. Educational.** (a) Education under control of the State. (b) Public education expanded. (c) Creation of many institutions — museums, universities, libraries.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

- Which list of titles correctly suggests the steps by which Napoleon Bonaparte rose to power? (a) general, emperor, first consul; (b) emperor, general, first consul; (c) first consul, general, emperor; (d) general, first consul, emperor. 1. _____
- The downfall of Napoleon I was helped by all of these *except* (a) the disaster of the Russian campaign, (b) French imperialism in Mexico, (c) British sea power, (d) the rise of nationalistic feeling in the dominated countries. 2. _____
- An important result of the conquests of Napoleon Bonaparte was the (a) beginning of German unification, (b) creation of an African empire, (c) destruction of British sea power, (d) French settlement of Canada. 3. _____
- A present-day French policy that came from Napoleon's reforms is (a) strong local government, (b) respect for monarchy, (c) dependence on a large navy, (d) national control of public education. 4. _____
- An effect of Napoleon's conquests on the nations of Europe was to (a) discourage the formation of alliances, (b) encourage the growth of nationalism, (c) establish free trade, (d) strengthen feudalism. 5. _____
- Which of these would provide the most impartial account of Napoleon's rise to power? (a) a newspaper of the Napoleonic Era, (b)

- letters written by the Duke of Wellington, (c) an up-to-date encyclopedia, (d) the diary of one of Napoleon's officers. 6.
7. Which country was *never* invaded by Napoleon? (a) Spain, (b) Italy, (c) Prussia, (d) England. 7.
8. Napoleon gained power and became dictator of France through (a) coup d'état, (b) an election as dictator, (c) conquest, (d) Concordat. 8.
9. The method by which Napoleon tried to strangle Great Britain economically was known as (a) the merchant guilds, (b) the Continental System, (c) free trade, (d) the Commercial Revolution. 9.
10. Which one of these statements about Napoleon is true? (a) he believed in liberty and equal political rights, (b) he carried the ideals of the French Revolution to other countries, (c) he favored the restoration of the old order in France, (d) he successfully established French control over Spain. 10.
11. The main importance of the Napoleonic Code is that it (a) established democracy in France, (b) became the basis of the law systems of many countries, (c) suppressed the ideas of the French Revolution, (d) was largely responsible for Napoleon's downfall. 11.
12. The main source of Napoleon's strength was (a) his army, (b) his navy, (c) the loyalty of his allies, (d) his noble birth. 12.
13. Napoleon's final place of exile was (a) Elba, (b) Rome, (c) St. Helena, (d) Paris. 13.
14. The reform *not* attributed to Napoleon is (a) the Concordat of 1801, (b) the Declaration of the Rights of Man, (c) the Bank of France, (d) the University of France. 14.
15. The "Hundred Days" refer to (a) the duration of the Reign of Terror, (b) the restoration of Louis XVIII, (c) the Russian campaign of 1812, (d) the return of Napoleon from Elba. 15.
16. All of the following are reasons for Napoleon's rapid rise to power *except* his (a) political alliance with the Jacobins, (b) ability to inspire his followers, (c) fortunate marriage to Josephine, (d) brilliant military successes. 16.
17. The Egyptian campaign of Napoleon (a) led to the discovery of the Rosetta Stone, (b) caused England's loss of control over Egypt, (c) brought the Near East under French control, (d) led to a clash with Russia. 17.
18. The United States became involved in a war with England during the Napoleonic era as a result of (a) the violation of the Monroe Doctrine, (b) American desire to help France, (c) interference with neutral shipping, (d) English conquests on the European continent. 18.
19. The Concordat with the Church (a) restored church lands in France, (b) permitted the Church to collect tithes, (c) brought the support of the French clergy to Napoleon, (d) agreed to let the State control education. 19.
20. The University of France (a) centralized French education in the hands of the State, (b) excels in graduate study, (c) helps to train priests, (d) is like the Naval Academy at Annapolis. 20.

21. The Legion of Honor was (a) composed of the former aristocrats of France, (b) open to all on the basis of service to the state, (c) a secret organization, (d) created by Louis XVIII to help him control France. 21. _____
22. The Battle of Trafalgar was significant because it (a) gave Napoleon control of the seas, (b) marked the end of English naval power, (c) prevented a French invasion of England, (d) enabled Napoleon to enforce effectively the Continental System. 22. _____
23. Napoleon's efforts to build up an empire in North America were frustrated largely through the efforts of (a) Toussaint L'Ouverture, (b) Jefferson, (c) Talleyrand, (d) his brother Joseph. 23. _____
24. Important victories of Napoleon included all of the following *except* (a) the Battle of the Nile, (b) Jena, (c) Marengo, (d) Austerlitz. 24. _____
25. Napoleon deposed the kings of the following European countries *except* (a) Spain, (b) Holland, (c) England, (d) Portugal. 25. _____
26. Napoleon kept a dictator's hold on the countries of Europe by (a) creating an economic union, (b) rigged elections, (c) establishing his relatives on the thrones of conquered countries, (d) an efficient spy system. 26. _____
27. By the Berlin and Milan Decrees Napoleon (a) established his own rule over these cities, (b) put his brother on the throne of Spain, (c) married Maria Louisa of Austria, (d) closed the ports of Europe to British trade. 27. _____
28. The Peninsular War refers to the (a) revolt of the Normans against Napoleon, (b) uprising of the Spaniards, aided by the British, (c) victories of Napoleon in Italy, (d) successes of Russia against Turkey. 28. _____
29. The Russian campaign of 1812 (a) brought that country under the Continental system, (b) was marked by French military successes, (c) destroyed much of Napoleon's armies, (d) gave Russia control of Constantinople. 29. _____
30. Napoleon as ruler of France believed in practicing the principle of (a) equality, (b) liberty, (c) freedom of the press, (d) democracy. 30. _____

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER TEST

Arrange the following events in the career of Napoleon Bonaparte in their correct chronological order.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. coup d'état | 6. Russian campaign |
| 2. Hundred Days | 7. exile to Elba |
| 3. defense of the Convention | 8. made Emperor of the French |
| 4. Waterloo | 9. marriage to Maria Louisa |
| 5. Trafalgar | 10. exile to St. Helena |

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Discuss two reasons why many Frenchmen consider Napoleon Bonaparte a great national hero.
2. As Napoleon's private secretary from 1795 to 1821, write a newspaper article proving that Napoleon made the world a better place to live

in. (Be sure to include at least four definite examples or reasons.)

3. Napoleon has been called the Son of the French Revolution. (a) Explain how he was the product of the Revolution. (b) Describe two ways in which he carried out the principles of the Revolution. (c) Show how his career contradicted the principles of the Revolution.

4. Indicate how each of the following influenced the overthrow of Napoleon: (a) the Continental System, (b) the rise of nationalism, (c) his own ambition, (d) the invasion of Russia.

5. "Some of the reforms adopted by Napoleon still exist today." Describe three such reforms.

6. What conditions in France made possible the rise of Napoleon to power?

7. "Modern dictators may learn much from the career and activities of Napoleon." Show by reference to specific facts the truth or falsity of this statement.

MAP LOCATION TEST

The statements below the map identify various countries connected with Napoleon's career. On the line at the right of each statement write the name of the country and the number indicating its location on the map.



	Name	Number
1. The country never invaded by French troops.	_____	_____
2. Napoleon sailed across this sea on his way back from the Battle of the Nile.	_____	_____
3. The country which Napoleon invaded "like a lion and came out like a lamb."	_____	_____
4. Napoleon's fleet was destroyed here by the British in 1805.	_____	_____
5. The country whose princess became Napoleon's second wife.	_____	_____
6. The island on which Napoleon was born.	_____	_____
7. The country to which Napoleon returned for the Hundred Days.	_____	_____
8. The country in which the Peninsular War was fought.	_____	_____
9. Here Napoleon's army was defeated by the British in 1815.	_____	_____
10. The country governed by Napoleon's sister and brother-in-law.	_____	_____



The Age of Reaction

1815-1848

1. The Congress of Vienna—1814-1815

Europe Plots to Restore the Old Regime. With Napoleon out of the way, the European nations met at Vienna to remake the map of Europe. The reasons for calling the *Congress of Vienna* were to put the ousted monarchs back on their thrones and settle boundaries. They also wanted to punish Napoleon's supporters and reward those who had fought him. In short, they met to restore the Old Regime.

Men Who Attended the Congress. The Congress of Vienna was not a European congress in the true sense of the term. Actually, its decisions were made by a few leaders of great nations. Among them were Prince Metternich of Austria; Lord Castlereagh and the Duke of Wellington of England; Czar Alexander I of Russia; Frederick William III, Hardenberg and Humboldt of Prussia.

In addition, the Kings of Denmark, Bavaria, and Wurttemberg, princes from the Netherlands and Sardinia, the minor rulers of the German states, and representatives from Spain and Portugal were also present. Defeated France was represented by Talleyrand who had lived through the many changes of the Revolutionary period. It was his plan to take advantage of differences between the "Big Four" and to win the best possible terms for France.

Metternich Opposes Democracy and Nationalism. Prince Metternich was the outstanding personality at the Congress. In his efforts to "turn the clock of history backward" to 1789, reactionary Prime Minister Metternich won the delegates to his principles of *legitimacy* and *compensation*.

1. **The Principle of Legitimacy.** In his efforts to build a European empire, Napoleon had ousted a number of European kings. These hereditary rulers were restored to their thrones by the Congress. They included the House of Bourbon in France, Spain, and the two Sicilies; the Houses of Braganza in Portugal, of Savoy in Sardinia and of Orange in the Netherlands. The Papal States were returned to the Pope and the German princes whose territories had been included in the Confederation of the Rhine were also restored to their thrones.

2. **The Principle of Compensation.** At the Congress, Napoleon's enemies were rewarded and other nations were compensated for the shifting of territories. The Congress revised the map of Europe.

IMPORTANT TERRITORY CHANGES

Country	Territory Gained	Later History
England	Cape Colony, Ceylon, and Guiana from the Dutch; Heligoland and Malta.	Cape Colony and Ceylon became dominions of England (1907, 1948); Heligoland returned to Germany in 1890; Malta and Guiana still British.
Russia	Finland; Polish territory.	Finland and Poland became independent states in 1918. Today, Poland is a satellite of Russia.
Austria	Lombardy - Venetia annexed and Austrian princes ruled in Parma, Tuscany and Modena.	These territories were lost to the Kingdom of Italy when that country became unified 1859-66.
Holland	Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) in exchange for loss of colonies to England.	In 1830 the Belgians revolted and gained their independence.
Sweden	Norway, in exchange for loss of Finland to Russia and Pomerania to Prussia.	In 1905 Norway separated from Sweden by peaceful agreement.
Prussia	Swedish Pomerania, part of Poland, 2/5 of Saxony, Westphalia and territory on Rhine River.	In 1918 Polish territory became part of the independent state of Poland.
France	Last only territories gained since 1792, due to clever diplomacy of Talleyrand.	

A Deaf Ear Is Turned to Nationalism. The people of Europe had nothing to say in these territorial changes. Metternich and many others at the Congress held the people of Europe in contempt. The Belgians were joined to Holland; the Norwegians to Sweden; the Finns to Russia; the Poles to Prussia and Russia and the Italians to Austria. No thought was given to nationality, religion, language—or the wishes of the people concerned. The Congress turned a deaf ear to the Germans and Italians, interested in creating unified states. The Italian peninsula remained broken up into a number of separate, independent states, with Austrian influence strongest in the northern and central parts. A German Confederation was created, with Austria as president and Prussia as vice-president.

Democracy Is Further Strangled. The democratic principles of popular self-government and civil liberties were rejected. As much as

possible the rulers tried to revive the Old Regime. That they were not completely successful was due to the strength of these ideas among the people who had fought for them. Therefore, concessions had to be made.

In France, Louis XVIII ruled not by divine right of kings but under a Charter (Constitution) he had granted in 1814. Serfdom and feudalism could not be restored; religious toleration could not be abolished.

Buffer States Are Created. To prevent France from again threatening the peace of Europe, the Congress strengthened her neighbors. Holland was almost doubled in size with the addition of Belgium. Sardinia was made stronger by gaining Genoa. Switzerland's neutrality was guaranteed by the European nations.

Some Other Decisions Made by the Congress. The peace treaty also called for the abolition of the slave trade and the free use of international rivers such as the Rhine and the Danube.

The Quadruple and Holy Alliances. Metternich wanted to make the Vienna treaties permanent and keep the *status quo* (things as they were). To this end he backed the creation of the *Quadruple Alliance* in 1815—Austria, Russia, Prussia and England. These nations were pledged to maintain peace by putting down democratic or nationalistic revolts wherever they arose. In 1818 France became a member.

Czar Nicholas I of Russia helped organize the *Holy Alliance*, made up of almost all the kings of Europe. These monarchs pledged themselves to govern with justice, charity and peace; however, none honored the pledge.

The Congress of Vienna Brings Peace to Europe. Though the Congress did suppress democratic and nationalistic ideals for a time, international peace resulted. For almost a century there was no general war on the continent of Europe. Although during this period there were the Austro-Prussian War, the Franco-Prussian War and the Crimean War to break the long European calm, it was not until World War I in 1914 that Europe split into two camps again as it had during the Napoleonic Wars.

2. The Metternich Era

Metternich—the Symbol of Reaction. The 30 years following the Congress of Vienna have been called the *Age of Metternich*. At this time Metternich was the leading statesman of Austria and the chief architect of the Quadruple Alliance. He was called a *reactionary*

because he was opposed to any changes except those that would revive the Old Regime. Other terms that were popularized during this period were: a *conservative* (a person who believes in very slow changes, if any); a *liberal* (a person who favors changes but in a gradual fashion), and a *radical* (a person who wants changes to come quickly and go to the root of the matter—*radical*, from the word *root*).

The Metternich System Discourages Revolts. In order to put down nationalistic and democratic movements in Europe, Metternich used these methods: (1) strict censorship of speech, press, and education; (2) spy system to uncover plots; (3) the Quadruple Alliance to suppress actual revolts.



AUSTRIAN EMPIRE



PRUSSIA



GERMAN CONFEDERATION

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA. With Napoleon's defeat, the victors rewarded those who had fought against Napoleon. Norway was given to Sweden; Finland and part of Poland were turned over to Russia; Prussia got Swedish Pomerania, part of Saxony and territory on the Rhine; Holland got Belgium from Austria; Austria got the Tyrol and two Italian states. England got Malta, Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope.

Metternich's battle against democracy and nationalism kept the Alliance busy putting down revolts for the next 30 years.

Democratic Revolts	Nationalistic Revolts
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Liberal movement in the German universities crushed by Carlsbad Decrees (1819) which established strict censorship of press, placed spies in the classrooms to check on the teachings of professors, and abolished student fraternities. 2. Spanish revolt of 1820. 3. Revolt in Naples and Piedmont (1820). 4. French Revolution of 1830. 5. Revolts of 1848 in France, Prussia, Austria. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Italian revolt in 1830. 2. Greek War of Independence 1821-29 3. Latin American colonies revolt for freedom 1810-1823. 4. Belgian revolt for independence 1830-39. 5. Polish revolt of 1831 6. Revolts of 1848 in the German states, Bohemia, Italian states, Hungary.

The Spanish and Italian Revolt in 1820. When the Bourbon King Ferdinand VII regained the throne, he scrapped the liberal (1812) constitution. He restored the Old Regime, absolutism, privileged classes, and the Inquisition and suppressed individual liberties. In 1820 a revolt broke out and Ferdinand was forced to restore the 1812 constitution. Metternich and the great powers of Europe called a meeting of the Quadruple Alliance at Verona in 1822. A French army was sent to Spain to crush the revolt. When Ferdinand came back to full power, he executed the rebel leaders. Thereafter he ruled as a despot; for almost 100 years, Spain remained an autocratic and backward state.

In the Italian states of Piedmont and Naples, similar revolts broke out in 1820. Led by a secret organization known as the *Carbonari* ("charcoal burners") the rebels demanded written constitutions limiting royal absolutism. At the *Congress of Laibach* (1821) the Quadruple Alliance ordered Austria to use military force to put down this liberal movement. "The fire brigade of Europe," as the Austrian army was called, put out the fires of rebellion in Piedmont and Naples.

Revolt in Latin America—Metternich System's First Setback. During the Napoleonic period, with Spain and Portugal then controlled by the French, the Latin-American colonies of these countries revolted and declared their independence. After Napoleon's fall Spain tried to win back her former colonies but, led by Simon Bolívar, José de San Martín and Bernardo O'Higgins, the Latin Americans successfully fought back. The 1820 revolt in Spain weakened Ferdinand's effort. However, since he had gotten help

in putting down the revolt at home, he begged for more aid in winning back his former colonies.

The threat of such a move aroused both the United States and Great Britain. These countries were building up a profitable trade with Latin America which would be ended if it again came under Spanish control. The American people also sympathized with the new republics, whose history resembled somewhat their own stormy path to freedom. The United States issued a stern warning to Metternich and to Spain, in the *Monroe Doctrine* (1823), to keep hands off.

The Monroe Doctrine declared that the United States would not interfere in the affairs of Europe; but it also warned European powers that the United States would not stand for attempts to upset the established nations in the western hemisphere or to try to create new ones there. England backed the United States, thus breaking definitely with the Quadruple Alliance. In the face of such opposition, the absolutist powers did not dare move. The Metternich system had thus received its first setback.

The Greeks Revolt—Another Blow Against Metternich. Nationalist ideas spread to central and eastern Europe. In 1821, the Greeks revolted against their Turkish masters. Metternich wanted to help the Turks put down the rebellion, but France, Russia and Britain helped the Greeks. This helped Greece win its freedom in 1829

3. *Revolutions of 1830— The Metternich System Crumbles*

The July Revolution Brings a Limited Monarchy to France. The Bourbon King, Louis XVIII (1814-24), granted equal rights before the law, and freedom of religion, speech and press. But he kept all powers of government. When his brother, Charles X (1824-30) became king, he established press censorship, limited the power of the legislature and controlled education. When he tried to repay nobles for the lands they had lost in the Revolution, the people of Paris grew angry. In 1830 he tried to dissolve a newly elected legislature and narrowly limited the number of voters who could take part in the new elections. This touched off a bourgeois revolt in Paris (July, 1830) in which the working class sided with the middle class. After a few days of fighting, Charles fled from France. The legislature elected Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, as king. The "Citizen King," as he was called, was supported by the middle class. A new constitution provided for a limited monarchy. But the workers who had fought most were still not given the right to vote. Nevertheless; the "July Revolution" was another defeat for the Metternich system.

Belgium Wins Her Independence. The union of Belgium and Holland had always produced friction. The Belgians were Catholic, industrial and spoke French and Flemish. The Dutch were Protestant, agricultural and spoke Dutch. Heartened by the French successes in 1830, the Belgians revolted. Helped by England and France, the Belgians won their freedom.

At this time Metternich and Czar Nicholas I were busy suppressing revolts in Italy, in the German states and among the Poles, and could not come to Holland's aid. In 1839 European countries recognized the independence and neutrality of Belgium. Elsewhere in Europe other attempts at revolt were unsuccessful. Several of the German states (Saxony, Hanover, Hesse) attempted to win liberal constitutions, but not receiving outside assistance, the movements failed. In central Italy, outbreaks in the Papal States, Parma and Modena, were put down by Austrian armies. The Polish people tried for their independence in 1831, but were suppressed by a Russian army. The Kingdom of Poland was ended, and Poland became a conquered province of the Russian Empire. The Metternich system was still strong in central and eastern Europe.

4. *The Revolutions of 1848— The Metternich System Falls*

The Second French Republic is Born. King Louis Philippe gradually threw off the disguise of the democratic king and became less and less liberal. Under Prime Minister François Guizot (1840-48), the monarchy became more unpopular. The working classes, under the leadership of Louis Blanc, grew uneasy over low wages, bad working conditions and unemployment. The supporters of the Bourbon and Napoleonic families disliked the king. Republicans objected to any monarch at all. Liberals wanted more democracy, particularly in voting (only the middle and upper classes could vote).

In February, 1848, opposition to Louis Philippe boiled over. Riots broke out in Paris and the king was forced to flee to Britain. A second Republic was established, with universal manhood suffrage; that is, every adult male could vote. Elections for president were held and Louis Napoleon, nephew of the first Napoleon, was elected. A new constitution guaranteed freedom of speech and press, security from unjust imprisonment and the right of assembly and petition.

Louis Napoleon served as President until 1851 when, following his uncle's example, he executed a *coup d'état* and took control. In the following year, he created the Second French Empire.

Concessions Are Won in the German States. "Every time France sneezes, Europe catches cold," goes a saying. Revolt in France spread quickly to other parts of Europe. In the German states, the rulers had to make liberal concessions. A movement to unify the German states led to the *Frankfort Assembly*, with representatives from the different states. It failed because of differences over whether (1) a united Germany should be a republic or a monarchy and, (2) Austrian lands should be included or excluded from the union. Frederick William IV of Prussia was offered the crown of a united Germany but rejected this gift "from the gutter," as he termed it. Austria opposed the purpose of the Assembly and the liberals withdrew from the meeting. Thus, efforts to win unity had to be postponed for another generation.

In the Austrian Empire—Metternich Is Swept Out. The Austrian Empire included many different nationalities—Poles, Bohemians, Hungarians, Italians, Serbs and others. The revolutionary movement of 1848 that swept through the Empire touched off democratic and nationalistic revolts. Metternich, the chief target of these revolts, was forced to leave the country. But the Austrian revolutionists were put down by the Austrian army. The new Emperor, Francis Joseph, ruled with a firm grip.

Nationalistic uprisings among the Czechs and Hungarians were put down. At first the Hungarians, led by Louis Kossuth, formed an independent country. However, when they tried to restrict the Slavic minority groups, these people revolted. The Slavs combined with the Austrians to defeat the Hungarians, who again came under the control of their former masters. Hungary had to wait 20 more years for self rule.

The Italian Revolution Fails. The Italian states rose up and drove the Austrians out of the northern provinces. Charles Albert of Sardinia tried to build a united Italian state. In 1849 Austrian armies defeated Charles Albert and forced him to give up his throne. Constitutions were revoked, popular assemblies dismissed and Italian liberals hanged, jailed or exiled. Reaction had triumphed in Italy also.

Results of "The Year of Revolutions." Nationalism had failed to win freedom and unity for the Germans, Italians, Czechs and Hungarians. However, the revolutions of 1848 did have important effects upon later European history:

1. Universal manhood suffrage was secured in France.
2. Written constitutions were adopted in Sardinia and Prussia, the states around which a united Germany and a united Italy were to be built by 1870.
3. Metternich was overthrown and with him the Metternich System collapsed.

4. Feudalism was abolished in many of the central European states.
5. The democratic and nationalistic movements had shown their strength.



BOLIVAR

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. All of the following were associated with the Congress of Vienna *except* (a) the principle of legitimacy, (b) regard for nationalistic ambitions, (c) the principle of compensation, (d) formation of the German Confederation. 1.
2. The announcement of the Monroe Doctrine was influenced by all of the following *except* (a) the Quadruple Alliance, (b) English foreign policy, (c) reactionary attitude of the European powers, (d) the revolution in Greece. 2.
3. At the Congress of Vienna (1815) Metternich's political aims were (a) reactionary, (b) liberal, (c) progressive, (d) radical. 3.
4. The principle of the balance of power as applied by the Congress of Vienna provided for (a) a system of alliances, (b) disarmament, (c) democratic forms of government, (d) the independence of Norway. 4.
5. The person who dominated the Congress of Vienna in 1815 was (a) Bismarck, (b) Metternich, (c) Napoleon, (d) Wellington. 5.
6. After the Napoleonic Wars, the rulers of Europe united to (a) promote the growth of democracy, (b) protect the people from unjust attack, (c) protect western Europe from autocratic Russia, (d) oppose liberal ideas. 6.
7. The Congress of Vienna tried to (a) continue the work of Napoleon I, (b) restore aristocratic rulers to their thrones, (c) enable the people to attain "liberty, equality, fraternity", (d) support the establishment of representative government. 7.
8. The Metternich system supported (a) independence for Belgium, (b) England's Reform Bill of 1832, (c) restoration of the monarchy in France, (d) universal suffrage for Austria-Hungary. 8.
9. I was considered by my opponents to be the chief enemy of political liberty and social equality in Europe during the period from 1815 to 1848. I am (a) Cavour, (b) Disraeli, (c) Metternich, (d) Talleyrand. 9.
10. The Revolution of 1848 led to the overthrow of (a) Metternich, (b) the Duke of Wellington, (c) Napoleon III, (d) Czar Alexander I. 10.
11. When the Congress of Vienna awarded Finland to Russia it carried out the principle of (a) compensation, (b) legitimacy, (c) plebiscite, (d) the divine right of kings. 11.

12. The principle of legitimacy at the Congress of Vienna referred to (a) compensation for lost territory, (b) restoration of former rulers, (c) regard for nationalist hopes, (d) none of these. 12.
13. By playing one country against the other I arranged easy terms for France at the Congress of Vienna. Who am I? (a) Nelson, (b) Talleyrand, (c) Mirabeau, (d) Robespierre. 13.
14. The revolution of 1830 (a) began with the overthrow of Louis Philippe, (b) saw the creation of an independent Polish Republic, (c) resulted in the overthrow of Metternich, (d) led to an independent Belgium. 14.
15. The Metternich system included all of the following methods *except* (a) secret police, (b) censorship, (c) free elections, (d) international intervention. 15.
16. The Frankfort Assembly (a) created a united Germany, (b) was called by representatives of various German states, (c) elected Louis Napoleon President of France, (d) defeated Italy's efforts at unification. 16.
17. Which of the following is incorrectly associated with the revolutionary outbreaks of 1848? (a) Louis Kossuth—Hungary, (b) Charles Albert—Sardinia, (c) Louis Blanc—France, (d) Bismarck—Prussia. 17.
18. All of the following were nationalist revolts against the Metternich system *except* (a) the French Revolution of 1830, (b) the Carbonari Revolt in Italy, (c) the Belgian revolt of 1830, (d) the Polish revolt of 1831. 18.
19. The Spanish revolt of 1820 was put down by an army of intervention from (a) England, (b) Austria, (c) France, (d) Sardinia. 19.
20. The Carlsbad Decrees (1819) (a) crushed a revolt in Naples, (b) ordered no trade with America, (c) ended Bourbon rule in France, (d) established censorship in German universities. 20.
21. All of the following countries are associated with territory gained at the Congress of Vienna (1815) *except* (a) Russia—Finland, (b) England—Cape Colony, (c) France—Nice and Savoy, (d) Sweden—Norway. 21.
22. Buffer states strengthened by the Congress of Vienna (1815) included all of the following *except* (a) Holland, (b) Sardinia, (c) Spain, (d) Switzerland. 22.
23. The Quadruple Alliance included all of the following countries *except* (a) Sardinia, (b) Austria, (c) Russia, (d) Prussia. 23.
24. The Holy Alliance (a) crushed nationalist revolts wherever they occurred, (b) undertook to police the continent of Europe after 1815, (c) was organized by Czar Alexander I of Russia, (d) was created to promote democratic and liberal tendencies. 24.
25. The Greek war for independence was (a) against the Turks, (b) actively supported by Austria, (c) opposed by England and Russia, (d) unsuccessful. 25.



METTERNICH

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I

II

- 1. Louis Kossuth
- 2. Alexander I
- 3. Metternich
- 4. Louis Philippe
- 5. Charles X
- 6. Cape Colony
- 7. Finland
- 8. Talleyrand
- 9. Carbonari
- 10. Guizot

- a. citizen King of France
- b. acquired by England in 1815
- c. Hungarian leader of 1848
- d. French delegate at Vienna
- e. Italian revolutionary society
- f. acquired by Russia in 1815
- g. organizer of the Holy Alliance
- h. German revolution of 1848
- i. deposed French king in 1830
- j. minister of Louis Philippe
- k. organizer of the Quadruple Alliance

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. The Era of Metternich was a period of reaction. (a) Explain the differences between liberalism and reaction. (b) Give three specific evidences of the reactionary policies of this period.

2. Explain the work of the Congress of Vienna in relation to the following: (a) minority rights, (b) the balance of power, (c) legitimacy, (d) compensation.

3. Account for the relatively lenient treatment of France at the Congress of Vienna by referring to (a) the efforts of Talleyrand, (b) the legacy of the French Revolution, (c) the personality of Louis XVIII, (d) the principle of legitimacy.

4. (a) Describe the Metternich system. (b) Show, by reference to specific events, how it carried out the principles of the Vienna settlement.

5. How was the government of France affected by each of the following: (a) National Assembly of 1789, (b) Napoleon, (c) Congress of Vienna, (d) Revolution of 1830, (e) Revolution of 1848.

6. Describe the events that led to the issuance of the Monroe Doctrine.

7 "Every time France sneezes, Europe catches cold." Explain this statement by reference to the events of 1789, 1830, 1848.

8. What were the results of the revolutionary year of 1848?

9. Show how each of the following illustrates the Age of Metternich. (a) Charles X, (b) Louis Kossuth, (c) Carlsbad Decrees, (d) Carbonari.



The Industrial Revolution

1. *How the Industrial Revolution Came About*

Why Was the Industrial Revolution So Important to History? The machine has changed the world in the last 200 years. The lives of individuals and the fates of nations have been changed; production of goods and the ways people earn their living changed too. The expansion of world trade into areas undreamed of before the 19th Century affected the entire world. All this was brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

For thousands of years the basic methods of earning a living had been unchanged. A Greek of Pericles' time or a Roman friend of Julius Caesar would have adjusted fairly easily to the Europe of the early 18th Century, for the fundamental methods of agriculture had not changed greatly in all these years. But he would find the world of today a very different place to live and to work in. He would be amazed at methods of mass production, the endless variety of products, the train, steamship and plane, the radio, wireless, telephone, television, education and learning, science and medicine. All these, and more, were brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

What Does the Term "Industrial Revolution" Mean? The Industrial Revolution is defined as a basic change in the methods of producing goods, using power-driven machinery. It included the following:

1. The invention of machines to replace human labor.
2. The development of new forms of power—water, steam, electricity, oil and most recently, atomic energy.
3. Increased production and use of such minerals and metals as coal, iron, steel and aluminum.
4. Improved methods of transportation and communication.
5. Mass production of goods, with increase in number and kind.
6. The growth of factories.
7. The movement of people from farm to factory, from country to city.
8. The growth of capitalism, providing the financial capital for this industrial expansion.
9. The rise of new classes: the bourgeoisie and the working class.
10. Changes in production through machines and science.

Where the Industrial Revolution Began. The background of these changes is to be found in the Commercial, Scientific and Intellectual Revolutions.

The Commercial Revolution of the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries

saw the expansion of Europe overseas. It witnessed an increase in geographic knowledge, the establishment of colonies in the New World and in Asia. From all this came an increase in trade and commerce. Individual craftsmen, working under the old guild system (see page 119), could not meet these greater demands for goods, and the guild system began to fade away.

The Scientific and Intellectual Revolutions of the 17th and 18th centuries, with the discoveries of Newton, Lavoisier and Boyle, and the writings of Locke, Voltaire and others, created the atmosphere of free inquiry, without which the development of the industrial revolution could not have taken place. These people and their ideas led to a greater knowledge of nature, weakened the hold of superstition and tradition and encouraged the search for new and better ways of doing things.

The Domestic System of Production Is Replaced by the Factory System. Because of the increased demands for goods growing out of the Commercial Revolution, new and better methods of production were needed. In the late 16th Century and continuing for about 200 years, a new method of manufacturing called the *domestic system* was developed in England. Under this method, the businessman delivered the raw materials (like wool) to the home of the worker. The worker then made the finished product (a dress or a suit) at home and was paid a wage for his work.

But the domestic, or "putting out system," could not keep up with increasing demands for products, particularly in textiles. Speedier methods were needed. The factory system met this demand.

	Domestic System	Factory System
Methods used	Simple hand tools.	Machine.
Where produced	At home.	In factory.
Type and ownership of tools	Simple tools owned by worker, operated by hand.	Complex power-driven machines owned by the capitalist.
Output	Small, limited to local market, and made only when ordered.	Large scale, for a world market, and made in anticipation of demand.
Work done by worker	Worker usually made entire article.	Worker operated on an assembly line, performing one operation.
Hours of work	As many as worker could, whenever work was required.	Regular hours on a daily basis.
Dependence on employer	Most workers were also small farmers.	Completely dependent on capitalist for income.

The Industrial Revolution Begins in England. Unlike other revolutions we have studied (the English Revolution of the 17th Century and the French Revolution of the 18th Century), which are marked by definite events and dates, the Industrial Revolution consisted of slow, gradual changes that are continuing to this day. Some time after 1750 these changes became noticeable in England. England was the home of the Industrial Revolution because it had many of the necessary conditions:

1. **Capital:** English merchants had grown rich from the Commercial Revolution. They had the money to invest in new machines and to build factories.
2. **Markets:** England had a large, growing market for manufactured goods at home and in her colonial empire in America and in Asia.
3. **Raw materials:** England had large and easily available quantities of important raw materials such as iron (to build the new machines) and coal (to power them). She could easily get cotton from her colonies and other countries.
4. **Manpower:** England had an adequate supply of workers for the new factories. Serfdom and the guilds began to decline early in that country, with the result that English workers were freer to move from farm to factory. Many peasants had lost their land after the Enclosure Acts and this helped to increase the labor supply.
5. **Merchant marine:** England possessed the largest merchant fleet in the world. She could bring raw materials from the colonies and carry back the finished products.
6. **Geography.** Because of her island position, England had not been ruined by the 18th Century wars. She had good harbors and ports; her climate suited the growing textile industry, which needed dampness to prevent thread from becoming brittle. Her government was a stable one, and no internal barriers stood in the way of trade within the country itself.

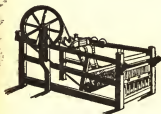
One Invention Leads to Another. That "necessity is the mother of invention" was proved over and over. The spinning machine, upsetting the balance between spinning and weaving, led to a search to improve and speed up weaving. The result was the power loom. This created a greater demand for raw cotton and led directly to the cotton gin. In the same way, the development of the machine demanded an improvement in the iron used to make it; this led to new methods of smelting iron and the development of steel.

Since more coal was necessary to produce the steam to turn the machinery, better methods of mining were necessary. These too were discovered. Invention is a never-ending process, each invention creating the need for and leading to another.

The Revolution in Textiles. The textile industry was the first to become industrialized. A series of inventions revolutionized the processes of spinning and weaving cotton cloth and resulted in a tremendous increase in production to meet the growing demand.

THE REVOLUTION IN TEXTILES

Inventor	Invention	Importance
John Kay English	Flying shuttle (1733)	Increased the speed of weaving; operated by hand.
James Hargreaves English	Spinning jenny (1765)	Spun eight threads at one time; helped to fill the demand for more thread. Could be used in the home.
Richard Arkwright English	Water frame (1769)	A spinning machine which used water power. Too large for home use; led to building of factories.
Samuel Crompton English	Spinning mule (1779)	Combined the jenny and the water frame and increased production of fine thread.
Edward Cartwright English	Power loom (1785)	Wove thread into cloth automatically and rapidly. Operated by water power.
Eli Whitney American	Cotton gin (1793)	Separated seed from raw cotton. Increased the amount of cotton available to textile manufacturers.
Elias Howe American	Sewing machine (1846)	Increased speed of sewing.



THE SPINNING JENNY. In 1765 James Hargreaves invented a machine that could spin eight threads at one time instead of one thread. This was the beginning of a series of inventions that revolutionized the textile industry.

The Steam Engine Speeds the Industrial Revolution. Since Arkwright's water frame depended upon water power, factories had to be built near swiftly flowing streams. However, there were certain

drawbacks to the use of water power. (1) There were not enough rivers. (2) Often the factories were far from the raw materials, or the market, or necessary workers. (3) Rivers often flooded or dried up. A new form of power was necessary.

For centuries man had tried to use the power that comes from the heating of water. Hero of Alexandria made a steam-driven device in the First Century B.C. A successful steam engine was developed by Thomas Newcomen in 1704 which pumped water from coal mines. In 1769 James Watt, a Scot, improved this engine and built one which could drive machinery. By 1800 these steam engines were replacing water wheels as the power for the spinning and weaving machinery in textile factories. Now the factory owner could build his factories near his markets or source of raw materials. Factories and cities sprang up near the iron and coal mines of central England.

Improvements in Coal and Iron Production. In order to smelt iron ore to burn out the impurities, a great deal of fuel was needed. The great demand for coal to smelt iron led to the development of the coal mining industry.

In 1709 Abraham Darby discovered that heating coal changed it into coke; this fuel was better than wood for iron smelting. John Smeaton in 1760 used steam blasts from air pumps run by water power to smelt iron. An improvement in the quality of iron also resulted from the puddling process developed by Henry Cort in 1783, which purified the molten iron into a stronger metal.

By 1800, coal production had doubled to 12 million tons in 30 years, while pig iron production had increased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times to 130,000 tons. Britain was producing as much iron and coal as the rest of the world together.

Steel was expensive and hard to produce during the first half of the 19th Century. However, in 1856 Henry Bessemer (bes'-uh-mer) discovered a cheaper and faster way of making it. His process introduced the "age of steel," for this metal has become the most important one in the modern world. Railroad trains, ships, buildings, automobiles, the weapons of war—all are made of steel.

Further improvements in steel production came with the open-hearth furnace, the electric furnace and the addition of other metals such as tungsten to produce special types of steel.

The Transportation Industry Is Revolutionized. The tremendous increase in the quantity of goods pouring out of the growing factories led to a search for more markets and more sources of raw materials. This, in turn, led to the development of faster and better means of transportation.

Among the leaders who brought about the revolution in transportation were the following:

THE REVOLUTION IN TRANSPORTATION

Name	Invention—Date	Importance
Robert Fulton American	Steamboat (1807)	Speeded up water transportation.
Thomas Telford and John Macadam English	Macadamized roads (1810-30)	Improved road building.
George Stephenson English	Locomotive (1825)	Speeded up land transportation.
Gottlieb Daimler German	Gasoline engine (1885)	Made possible the automobile.
Rudolf Diesel German	Diesel engine (1892)	Cheaper fuel to power ships, locomotives.
Wilbur and Orville Wright American	Airplane (1903)	Inaugurated air travel.

Land transportation was made speedier and safer by a variety of inventions. The first successful locomotive in England was the "Rocket" designed by Stephenson. It covered the distance of 40 miles between Manchester and Liverpool in an hour and a half (1830).

Between 1830 and 1870 the railway mileage in England alone increased from 49 miles to more than 15,000 miles. Other countries also built railroads. Trains became faster, safer and more comfortable. Steel rails replaced iron rails; Westinghouse's air brake (1869) made travel safer; sleeping cars, improved road beds and heavier cars made traveling more comfortable.

Robert Fulton, an American, is credited with the invention of the first steamboat in 1807. His steamboat, the *Clermont*, was the first to operate a regular route between New York City and Albany.

The steam engine was first installed on an ocean-going ship in 1819, when the *Savannah* used it as an auxiliary to sails in crossing the Atlantic. In 1836 John Ericsson invented the screw propeller, which did away with the paddle wheels of the first steamships. In 1838 the first ship crossed the Atlantic under steam power alone. It was the *Great Western* and it did it in 15 days. Later improvements have helped to reduce travel time and increase comfort and safety. Today it is not unusual for ships to make the crossing in four or five days.

THE REVOLUTION IN COMMUNICATION

Name	Invention	Importance
Samuel F. B. Morse American	Telegraph (1844)	Messages sent over telegraph wires rapidly.
Alexander G. Bell American	Telephone (1876)	Transmission of human voice over a wire.
Cyrus W. Field American	Atlantic cable (1866)	Connection of U.S. and Europe by cable.
Guglielmo Marconi Italian	Wireless Telegraph (1895)	Messages sent through the air without wires.
Lee de Forest American	Radio tube (1907)	Broadcasting of sounds throughout the world.
Vladimir Zworykin American	Television (1925)	Sight and sound broadcast simultaneously.

Other Industries Are Also Affected. Printing was revolutionized between 1800 and 1830 with the building of the iron printing press and then the steam-driven press. The invention of the rotary press by Hoe and the linotype machine by Mergenthaler helped spread knowledge and reduced the price of newspapers.

One industry after another was mechanized: shoe production, flour milling, laundering, furniture making. New industries developed: food preservation, gas lighting, photography, rubber and petroleum production. Each provided more jobs and more products and made life more varied.

2. The Agricultural Revolution

Eighteenth Century Agriculture Was Backward. The farmers of the 18th Century still used primitive methods. They used simple tools (the sickle, the wooden plow and hoe), the three-field system (by which the farmers left one-third of the land idle each year to restore fertility) and the open-field system (which kept land unfenced and made improvements difficult). These primitive methods produced just about enough to feed the population.

How Agriculture and Industry Depend on Each Other. Farming methods got better and production increased when labor-saving machinery was used. This permitted more people to leave the farm and take jobs in factories, thus increasing the population of industrial centers. More food had to be raised. Raw materials were needed in greater quantities by the textile factories; it was up to agriculture to supply them.

THE REVOLUTION IN AGRICULTURE

Name	Invention	Importance
Jethro Tull English	Seed drill. Horse-drawn cultivation	Planted seeds in straight rows. Eliminated weeds and loosened the soil.
Lord Townshend English	Crop rotation	Showed how to keep soil fertile by rotating crops. Helped to end the 3-field system.
Robert Bakewell English	Stock breeding	Improved the weight and size of cattle and sheep, produced more milk, beef and wool.
Arthur Young English	Agricultural writer	Made these new methods and inventions popular.
Justus von Liebig German	Fertilizers	Enriched old land so the farmer could use land over and over again.

Labor-Saving Machinery Helps Agriculture, Too. Eli Whitney's cotton gin (1793) was of great help to the growing textile industry. Cyrus McCormick's mechanical reaper (1834) helped the wheat farmer. Other inventions included the horse-drawn hay rake, the threshing machine and the steel plow. Later the steam engine, the gasoline engine and the electric motor were harnessed to farm machinery, speeding up farm work. Some of the new inventions that helped the farmer in the last 75 years are: the electric milking machine, the corn planter, the cream separator, refrigerated cars, automatic chicken brooders, the combine and cotton picker.

Science on the Farm. Agricultural chemistry became widely used after Liebig's experiments with artificial fertilizers. Agricultural societies, schools and experimental stations, both in Europe and in America, promoted the use of new and improved farming methods.

Science has helped the farmer in many ways. It has (1) improved stock breeding; (2) eliminated insect pests; (3) utilized byproducts; (4) developed new foods; (5) improved farming methods and irrigation techniques, and (6) preserved foods. The growth of the frozen-food industry is a recent example of how science is helping the farmer.

How Did These Changes Affect Mankind? By using machinery and scientific farming more food has been grown. Though the number of farmers has declined in most industrialized countries, this smaller group has been able to feed the growing population.

There has been a revolution in farm life. The farm family with its telephone, radio and television and automobile, is now close to its neighbors and the city. Electricity has lightened work both in the home and on the farm. Farming has become a big business; farmers now produce for a national and international market.

These changes were not evenly distributed throughout the world. The United States, Canada and western Europe have benefited from them greatly. In Asia, Africa and in many parts of South and Central America, the Agricultural Revolution has not yet arrived. In these areas, primitive methods of farming, the lack of industrialization, ignorance and the effects of feudalism and colonialism contribute to backwardness. The United Nations and the United States are trying to improve conditions by bringing new techniques and methods to the people of these areas.

3. *The Second Industrial Revolution (1870-)*

The "Old" Industrial Revolution and the "New." There are two periods of the Industrial Revolution: (1) the *old* Industrial Revolution (about 1750 to about 1870) which saw the basic changes connected with the growth of manufacturing established in a number of countries, like England, the United States, France and Belgium; and (2) the *new* Industrial Revolution, which is still going on.

After 1870, many more countries became industrialized (Germany, Japan and Russia); new sources of power like electricity and atomic energy came into use. New industries developed, like the automobile, radio and television; machines became bigger and more complex; the rate of production increased sharply.

The Industrial Revolution Spreads Afar. By the middle of the 19th Century England had become a highly industrialized country. Industry, business and commerce were now more important than agriculture. English textiles and iron and steel products were sold all over the world, and England had become a very wealthy nation. She had the largest merchant marine plus the greatest economic and financial influence.

England, growing fat from the benefits of industrialization, wanted to keep it all for herself. She passed laws forbidding new machines to be sold out of the country and even stopped English workers and inventors from traveling abroad. However, this could not last, and before long the inventions and machines and know-how were introduced into other countries. After 1870 the Industrial Revolution spread rapidly to other European countries, to America and even to Asia.

In France, industrialization was delayed by the French Revolu-

tion and Napoleonic Wars, but it began to spread after 1825. In 1871 Germany's industrial growth moved at a pace that dazzled the world. In the United States industrial development began after the War of 1812 and leaped forward after the Civil War. Industrialization was slow in Italy, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland and Sweden until after 1870, and in Russia until 1890.

After 1890 the Japanese Empire began manufacturing on a large scale. In more recent years, China, India and other Asiatic nations have begun to catch up. In Africa and Latin America, too, the machine is beginning to make its influence felt.

Industrialization is a process that goes on all the time. New machines replace old ones. Bigger, more powerful and more complicated machines take the place of simpler ones. In the Second Industrial Revolution automatic machinery which runs and regulates itself is being used in more and more industries. *Automation*, a new system of operating a process, system or machine, works by electronic devices and is greatly replacing manpower. In the First Industrial Revolution, machines were substituted for hand labor. In automation, machines are substituted for men operating machines. Now machines run other machines.

From Steam to Atomic Power. The new Industrial Revolution has discovered and used new sources of power. Just as the beginning of the industrial period depended on steam for power so the second stage added the use of electricity and oil and now nuclear energy to power ships and light cities.

New Forms of Transportation and Communication. The Second Industrial Revolution brought much faster transportation. Railroad tracks stretched across once-barren lands. In the United States railroads that spanned the continent helped industry grow. Russia built the Trans-Siberian Railway (1891-1905), joining European and Asiatic Russia. The tracks for the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad, connecting Europe and Asia by way of the Balkan states, were being laid. England planned a Cape-to-Cairo Railroad, to span Africa from north to south.

Railroads have now become electrified. The coal-burning, smoke-belching locomotive is gone; in its place are sleek, speedy electric and diesel engine locomotives.

Because the cost of transporting goods overland was high, canals in large numbers were built. These canals stimulated international trade. The Suez Canal, opened in 1869, made it possible to travel from Europe to the Far East by way of the Mediterranean Sea. The Kiel Canal, completed in 1896, connected the North Sea with the Baltic. In 1914 the Panama Canal was ready to permit ships to sail from the Atlantic to the Pacific without having to make the long trip around South America.

The automobile and the airplane speeded the advance of transportation. The automobile was made possible by the gasoline engine of Gottlieb Daimler in 1885 and the vulcanization of rubber by Charles Goodyear in 1839. Improved production methods, such as the assembly line, developed by Henry Ford, brought the automobile within reach of everyone. Sixty million cars, buses and trucks in America alone now carry people many billions of miles a year. This has provided a livelihood for those working in allied industries: service stations, auto repairs, rubber, steel and oil.

Air transportation has grown more and more important in the 20th Century. From its simple beginnings (the Wright brothers stayed in the air for less than a minute on their first flight), the airplane is now the swiftest means of travel yet known to man. London is only ten hours from New York; by jet plane it is less.

Communications have also been greatly speeded up in the new Industrial Revolution. Through the magic of the telephone, wireless, radio and television we have been able to receive the human voice and pictures right in our homes. Today any event can be flashed immediately to all corners of the world.

The Place of Science. In the new Industrial Revolution the scientist and the engineer have become very important. The chemical and electrical industries have expanded. Research in applied chemistry has produced such new products as nylon, rayon and plastics; coal and petroleum have yielded valuable byproducts such as dyes, paraffin, perfume, gasoline, lubricating oils and others. Industry has learned the value of scientific research in improving products, increasing production and reducing costs.

Science and industry have become profitable partners, and the benefits have been passed along to mankind. Scientific research produced the atomic bomb because of war pressures. Now the scientist and engineer are developing nuclear energy for peacetime uses.



FROM HORSE AND BUGGY TO THE SLEEK AUTOMOBILE. The automobile has made almost unbelievable strides forward since the days of the old Model T. Ford.

4. *Results of the Industrial Revolution*

The jobs we work at, the food we eat, the education we receive, the leisure time activities we enjoy, the form of government under which we live—all these have been influenced by the Industrial Revolution. The most important changes were:

A. *Economic Changes*

1. Rise of the factory system.
2. Growth of industrial capitalism.
3. Mass production of goods.
4. Increase in standards of living.
5. Unemployment problems.
6. Expansion of world trade.

B. *Political Changes*

1. Rise of businessmen to power.
2. Decline of landed aristocracy.
3. Growth of democracy.
4. Increased activities of government.
5. Stimulus to nationalism and imperialism.
6. Shift of power in world affairs to industrialized nations.

C. *Social Changes*

1. Increase in population.
2. Development of cities.
3. Improved status of women.
4. Growth in leisure time.
5. Stimulation to science and research.
6. Creation of such problems as slums, economic insecurity, and the increased deadliness of war.

A. *Economic Changes*

The Factory System—Heart of the Industrial System. Under the domestic system of production (page 204), the middleman supplied the raw materials, took all the production risks and got all the profits. The worker, on the other hand, had to accept such wages as the middleman was willing to pay.

Gradually the worker gave up his household industry and went with hundreds of other workers to work in a mill or factory. Here the employer not only supplied the raw materials and sold the finished product but also owned the machinery and the workshop. The term "manufacturer" (Latin, *manu, facere*, to make by hand), was no longer applied to the hand worker but to the person who hired others to work for him.

Factory production brought many changes in employment.

Regular work hours were established—at first, 14 or 15 hours a day, six days a week. Over the years, the hours have been reduced, until, for example, the 40-hour week is the rule in the United States. Europe lags in this accomplishment.

Mass Production—What It Meant to the Industrial Revolution. Under the factory system more and different kinds of goods were produced. This was true in old industries such as textile and iron and steel, and also in new industries. For example, four automobiles were produced in 1895; 181,000 in 1910, and over 6,000,000 cars, buses and trucks were produced in the United States alone in 1957.

The mass production of goods was made possible by:

1. **The Assembly Line.** Workers are stationed on either side of a slow-moving, broad belt, and each worker performs a small operation as the product moves past him to the next worker. For example, in an automobile plant, one worker puts the two left tires on the car, and they are tightened into place by the next worker on the line. Another worker puts on the right tires at the same time, and they are tightened by a second worker. The speed of the moving belt may be adjusted.

2. **Standardization of Parts.** Eli Whitney, an American, discovered the technique of the interchangeable, or standardized, part. Each part of a finished article (for example, the crown of a wrist watch) may be produced in quantity with great accuracy, to fit together with the other standardized parts. These parts can be put together quickly by assembly line methods to make the final item.



THE ASSEMBLY LINE—OLD AND NEW. The assembly-line method speeded up production and reduced costs. This method went through many changes and was copied by other industries.

3. Division, or Specialization, of Labor. Since each worker now performs only one small operation on the assembly line, many men, working together, may turn out in a few minutes an article which one man required weeks or months to produce. There are more than a thousand operations in the making of a good watch. Automobiles are produced at the rate of one a minute in a factory, whereas it would take a worker almost three years to make a car by himself. This division of labor, besides saving time, increased output. It also requires no special training, so it affords jobs for unskilled workers.

Standards of Living Are Bettered. With increased production and new kinds of goods, and with new inventions creating more jobs, standards of living improved. A hundred years ago silk stockings were worn only by wealthy women; others wore woolen or cotton stockings. Today almost everyone in the advanced countries like the United States can afford nylon stockings.

This is now true of other products as well. Most Americans can afford automobiles, radio and television sets, washing machines and vacuum cleaners. The average American today lives better than the richest people did several hundred years ago. He enjoys comforts and luxuries that were unknown and undreamed of in earlier centuries.

Industrial Capitalism—and How It Grew. Machinery, the factory system, division of labor and mass production led to the development of modern capitalism. The word *capital* may be defined as wealth that is used in producing more wealth. The *capitalist* is one who invests his money in business hoping to make a profit.

As the business grows and needs more capital for buildings, machinery and raw materials, the capitalist gets together with other capitalists to organize a *corporation* which sells shares of its *stock* to the general public. The *stockholders*, or owners of the corporation, hire managers to run the business. Thus, the relations between the owners and employees have become more and more separated as corporations increase their operations, widen production and make more money.

Corporations like the United States Steel Company and the American Telephone and Telegraph Company are examples of such big business. They hire hundreds of thousands of workers and produce hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of products. They maintain large research laboratories to improve production and cut costs, use mass-production methods, and make large profits for their thousands of owners (stockholders).

The growth of big business has brought with it certain dangers:

(1) to the small producer (who cannot meet the competition, improved methods of production and huge advertising spending of his larger competitors); (2) to the consumer (who is forced to buy goods from these large companies at prices fixed by them; (3) to the worker (who has had to fight to win benefits for himself, such as better hours, wages and working conditions); (4) to the government itself (which might find itself under the influence of these great companies).

The Machine Age Creates Unemployment. Before the Industrial Revolution most farm families were self-sufficient. They raised their food and made their own clothing. On the farm, there was no such thing as being unemployed.

Gradually the machine age destroyed the independence of the worker. He came to depend upon the employer for a job to earn the money to buy his food, clothing and shelter. When he lost his job, he and his family suffered.

Often the loss of his job wasn't his fault. If the goods turned out by the machines were not sold, a manufacturer would not produce as much the next year; as a result, he would lay off some of his workers. If the worker did not earn enough money to buy these goods, a condition came about called *over-production*—which was, in reality, *underconsumption*. In other words, more goods were produced than the people could afford to buy. This sometimes caused an economic depression, with many workers unable to find jobs.

World Trade—Free Trade and Protective Tariffs. As we have seen, the production of goods and the need for more raw materials increased. To widen markets for the increased production a greater world trade developed. This was made possible by the better methods of transportation mentioned above.

In the search for raw materials and markets, nations sometimes clashed in their efforts to control the same area. Such activities led to wars between the Europeans and the people of backward areas, or between the European nations themselves.

At first the industrialized nations followed the policy of *free trade*: that is, trade without tariffs or other barriers. But as the number of industrialized countries grew, competition for markets also increased. As a result, the free-trade policy was dropped and a *protective tariff* placed on goods coming into the country to protect home industries and keep out competing goods. These were not always wise policies; they held back world trade. In recent years nations have tried to make policies that would be helpful to each other such as reciprocal trade agreements and Euromarket (see page 449).

B. Political Changes

Rise of the Capitalist. In the early days of the Industrial Revolution, the new capitalist middle class had little power. The landed aristocracy and the kings still held feudal powers. Land was the most important form of wealth, and the land was theirs. As the Industrial Revolution grew, new forms of wealth (factories and machines) began to become more important and more valuable. These capitalists felt that they ought to have more political power.

Workers Demand More Rights in Government. First the middle class and then the working-class men and women demanded and won the right to vote and to have a voice in political matters.

The Government Regulates Business and Labor. Expansion brought with it problems involving the businessman, the worker and the government. To protect workers and consumers, governments passed laws for the worker, such as making unions legal, establishing minimum wages, inspecting goods and foodstuffs, regulating working conditions and social security.

Unfair competition among businessmen caused governments to pass laws to increase regulation of business. In a number of countries, the government itself runs the railroads, gas and electricity and banking industries.

Nationalism and Imperialism Awaken. Physical and cultural ties within nations were made stronger. A worldwide scramble for colonies and trade came with the Industrial Revolution. The leading industrial nations began to look favorably on the growth of empires. The clash between nationalism and imperialism caused many wars and it is still a problem today.

C. Social Changes

The Industrial Revolution Brings Population Increases. Progress in the prevention and cure of disease and a steady growth of food production marched hand in hand with industry. It seemed as though everything was growing—including the world's population. Europe's population grew from 144 millions in 1750 to 612 millions in 1956. England's population rose from 11,000,000 in 1815 to 51,000,000 in 1956.

Now, a new problem arose—that of feeding the world's growing population, especially in backward areas. A steady stream of people moved from crowded lands to less crowded countries like the United States. This, in turn, led to problems of housing, assimilation (taking people of many nationalities and making them similar), job opportunities and so forth.

How Did the Industrial Revolution Affect the Development of Cities?

In the 18th Century Paris was the largest city in Europe, with a population of 600,000. London had 500,000 persons. Today, London has more than 8,000,000, and Paris nearly 3,000,000 persons.

Two hundred years ago there were fewer than half a dozen cities in Europe with more than 200,000 inhabitants. Today there are about 80. In 1750 there was no country in which the majority of people lived in cities. Today there are several—in England three-fourths of the people live in cities. Chances for work and greater possibilities for comfortable living helped to bring them there.

Employment of Women and Children Is Regulated. Most of the new machines could be run by women and children. Employers hired them because they were willing to work for lower wages. Also, they needed money so badly that they did not complain about small wages or bad working conditions. Slowly, however, governments passed laws prohibiting the hiring of children under a certain age (usually 14 on the continent of Europe, 16 in the United States), and regulating hours and kinds of work by women.

The Industrial Revolution has made women less dependent upon men economically; it has helped free them from the home. Today they have the right to vote and hold office in most countries and enjoy equal rights with men in educational opportunities.

The Industrial Revolution made work easier for women in the home through the invention of labor-saving devices, and it has opened up many professions to them.

Science and Progress Are Advanced. Under the Industrial Revolution, man became more ready to accept change. Experimentation, the search for knowledge, was welcomed. New theories about mankind were developed. The various branches of science (chemistry, biology, physics, etc.) enabled man to understand the world around him. New discoveries, new theories made their mark on industrial development, too. Man's horizons were pushed out farther and farther by men and women like Charles Darwin, Priestley and Davy, Volta and Edison, Marie Curie, Harvey, Roentgen, Fleming, Salk—the list is endless.

Progress Also Creates New Problems. The Industrial Revolution, with all its benefits, also created many new problems. Among these are:

1. Loss of individual skills and pride in workmanship, thereby weakening the creative spirit.
2. The monotony of the assembly line method of production.
3. The creation of slums, brought about by the unhealthy congestion of workers' living quarters due to wages still too low in terms of rents.

4. The need for recreational opportunities for the increased leisure time of the workers as the work week was shortened.
5. Increased deadliness of war, growing out of scientific discoveries.
6. Almost absolute dependence of the worker on his job, thus increasing his economic insecurity, leaving him open to the dangers of depression and unemployment.

5. The Labor Movement

Relations Between Employer and Worker Change. The domestic system of production brought the worker and employer closer together. The employer knew his worker by name, brought the raw material to him and paid him personally for the work done. Why, a worker could hope to become an employer himself, some day!

But the factory changed all this. The employee and his boss drifted apart. Hundreds of workers, too poor to own a machine, no less a factory, worked for one employer. Generally, he was more interested in managing his business and making profits than in his workers. As the business grew, the differences between worker and employer became sharper and bad conditions developed. Out of these relationships came the rise of labor unions.

Evils of the Early Factory System. It was early evident that the Industrial Revolution was not good for the workers. The crowded factories were filthy and dingy. Workers toiled as many as 90 hours a week. Five or six-year-old children worked in the coal mines or tended machines in textile factories. Women and children often took men's jobs away, because they would accept lower wages.



ABUSES OF CHILD LABOR. With the disappearance of guilds, which had established some rules for the employment of women and children, conditions in some factories reached the lowest point. Children were beaten if they did not produce enough work. There were no protective devices on the machines to prevent workers from losing a hand in the machinery.

In the late 18th Century, when skilled male workers were getting from \$2 to \$3 a week in wages, women were getting \$1 a week, and children 75¢.

As machines were improved and labor-saving devices adopted, (that is, new machines replacing men) *technological unemployment* occurred. In the 19th Century, as more and more men lost their jobs to machines, workers began to smash the machines. The novel, *Silas Marner*, by George Eliot, tells how machines changed the lives of workers in the textile industry.

Living conditions were no better than working conditions. Employers built cheap homes for workers near the factories. These quickly became slum areas; there was little or no lighting, heating or sanitation.

Employers remained cold to the workingman's problems. They did not want to reduce profits by improving wages or working conditions or better living quarters.

The workers, with no other means of relief, took steps to better their conditions. In the last two centuries they have: (1) organized labor unions and fought for improvements directly with their employers; (2) won the adoption of laws improving their status; (3) created cooperatives (housing, buying, etc.) to help improve their standards of living; and (4) supported radical movements such as socialism, syndicalism and communism. (See pages 227-229.)

Labor Unions Win Recognition. In the early days of industrialism each worker bargained with his employer for higher wages or better working conditions. This put him in a weak position, for the employer could fire any worker who dared to ask for changes. Therefore, the workers gradually began to realize that "in union there is strength." Groups of workers formed themselves into unions and chose a leader to deal with the employer. In this way, *collective bargaining* (by a group) began to replace individual bargaining. The workers threatened that they would go out on strike in a body if their demands were turned down. Thus, production would be stopped because the employer could not replace hundreds of workers at one time.

Here are some of the important events in the fight for union recognition in England:

1. Government leaders and businessmen distrusted trade unions. The *Combination Laws* (1799-1800), made unions illegal and ruled that strikes were plots against the government. Severe jail sentences were given to workers who violated them.

2. Workers succeeded in modifying these laws in 1824-25. Workers could join unions, but they still could not strike.

3. Workers were given the right to vote by the *Disraeli Reform Act* (1867). They began to put political pressure upon Parliament.

4. The Combination Laws were repealed by 1875. Unions could now strike to win benefits.

5. Labor unions grew steadily and rapidly thereafter. By 1906 unions had a membership of 1,720,000.

6. The *Taff Vale* decision handed down by the House of Lords as the supreme law court of the country in 1901, declared that trade unions would have to pay for damages resulting from any strikes by their members. This threatened to wipe out unions in England.

7. The unions, as a result of this decision, went into politics; they organized a Labor Party. In 1906 they elected 29 members to Parliament; they now held the balance of power between Liberal and Conservative parties.

8. The Liberal Party, with the help of labor votes, adopted the *Trades Disputes Act* (1906), which safeguarded union funds from the operation of the *Taff Vale* decision.

9. A court decision in 1911 declared that union funds could not be used for political purposes. Since Members of Parliament were not paid, and Labor M.P.'s would not be able to live without salaries from unions, the life of the Labor Party was threatened. In 1911 Parliament passed the *Parliament Act*, which provided for salaries for its members.

10. In the 1920's the British Labor Party replaced the Liberal Party as one of the two major parties in England. In 1924, for a brief period, and again in 1929 (for two years) the Labor Party was elected to power.

11. The Labor Party returned to power in 1945 and 1950, and adopted such important measures as socialized medicine and government ownership of the electrical and steel industries and television broadcasting.

Labor Unions in Other Countries. In the United States, unions grew slowly until about 25 years ago. Some of the reasons were: (1) employers fought hard, (2) legal roadblocks, and (3) the belief of many workers that they could solve their problems by becoming little businessmen themselves. Gradually, through the American Federation of Labor (A.F.L.) and the Congress of Industrial Organizations (C.I.O.), the number of union members grew.

Government legislation such as the *National Recovery Act* (1933) and the *Wagner-Connery Act* (1935) recognized the right of workers to belong to unions and to bargain collectively. Today there are about 18 million union members in the United States, most of them belonging to the united A.F.L.-C.I.O.

In France, in the late 19th Century, labor unions were legalized and the General Confederation of Labor was organized to unite them. In Germany, too, trade unions grew after industrialization

was introduced. However, the social legislation adopted by Bismarck in the 1880's weakened the trade union movement there for many years. It was not until the 20th Century that unions became a powerful factor in that country. In other countries, too, with industrialization came unionization.

THE WEAPONS OF UNIONS AND EMPLOYERS

Union Weapons	Employer Weapons
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. strikes (organized stopping of work). 2. picketing (walking up and down before factory on strike to urge public not to do business with employer). 3. boycott (refusal to buy products of company whose workers are on strike). 4. collective bargaining (an attempt to settle dispute by discussions between labor and management). 5. closed shop (only union members may be employed). 6. check-off (regular deductions from worker's salary for union dues). 7. sabotage (malicious waste or destruction of employer's property). 8. union label (the public is urged to buy goods made only by union labor and so labeled). 9. favorable labor legislation (laws meeting labor's demands). 10. union shop (non-union labor can work with union labor providing they join union within 30 days). 11. lobbying (personal efforts to influence law-makers). 12. direct political action (backing a candidate or controlling labor's vote). 13. feather-bedding (requiring employer to pay for unnecessary work or workers; or slowing up work). 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. lockout (closing plant to force employees to accept terms). 2. injunction (court order prohibiting workers from striking or picketing). 3. yellow-dog contract (agreement by an employee not to join a union). 4. blacklist (names of active union workers, used to deny them work). 5. individual bargaining (agreements made with employees separately). 6. open shop (union and non-union labor may be employed). 7. welfare capitalism (providing certain benefits for workers to keep them from joining union). 8. right-to-work laws (a worker may work whether he is or is not a union member). 9. laws limiting union activities (for example: no union meetings on company time or property). 10. company unions (organization of employees of a plant, usually controlled by the employer).

How Labor Disputes May Be Settled. The fights between employers and unions are costly to both sides. Ways to achieve peaceful settlement of such disputes have been developed; among them are:

1. **Collective Bargaining.** The two disputing sides get together around a conference table to discuss grievances and attempt to reach a settlement.
2. **Mediation or Conciliation.** The two disputing sides select a third, impartial party who advises and tries to help them reach a mutual agreement.
3. **Arbitration.** The two disputing sides select a third, impartial party who acts as a judge, hears both sides of the case, and then hands down a decision. Both sides agree in advance to accept the decision.

6. Labor Legislation

Laissez-Faire Policy—No Government Regulation. Little effort was made in the early days of industrialism to improve the status of the workers. The working class had no political influence. Statesmen adopted the *laissez-faire* or hands-off policy; the government, they declared, should let a businessman run his business as he thought best. He should be allowed to fix wages, hours and working conditions. Only under these conditions, they argued, would a man want to invest money in a business.

Under pressure of the growing trade unions, the government policy of non-interference in business (*laissez-faire*), was dropped. Writers and government leaders demanded that workers be protected from the greed and cruelty of certain employers. Under such pressure, governments began to adopt laws to eliminate the injustices of the industrial system.

ENGLISH FACTORY LEGISLATION

Law	Date	Provisions
Pauper Apprentice Act	1802	Limited the hours of labor of pauper children apprenticed in cotton mills.
Cotton Factory Act	1819	Prohibited employment of children under nine and limited the working day of older children to 12 hours in cotton mills.
Factory Act	1833	Regulated the employment of persons under 18 years of age in all textile factories.
Mines Act	1842	Prohibited the employment of women and girls, and of boys under 10 years of age in mines.

Ten Hour Act	1847	Established 10-hour day for women and children in textile factories.
Safety Code	1855	Required mine owners to use safety devices for workers.
Factory Code	1878, 1902	Codified old factory laws and added new ones for improved protection and working conditions.
Labar Exchange Act	1909	Established system of free public employment bureaus.
Trades Board Act	1909	Established minimum wage for textile workers; extended in 1912 to coal industry.

Legislation in Other Countries. Other industrialized countries followed suit. In the United States, many states adopted factory inspection laws, limited work for minors, and placed safeguards on machinery. The Federal Government passed the *Fair Labor Standards Act* (1938), fixing minimum wages and maximum hours for workers in interstate business. States adopted similar laws for intrastate (within one state) industries.

Social Insurance Protects the Worker. The Industrial Revolution, as we have seen, made the worker less sure of his position. He feared unemployment, sickness, accident and poverty. Governments adopted *social legislation*, as shown below, to protect workers against these dangers.

Type of Insurance	England	Germany	France	Italy	United States
Accident insurance	1906	1884	1928	1898	state laws
Sickness insurance	1912	1883	1928	1898	some states
Old Age insurance	1908	1889	1910	1898	1935
Unemployment insurance	1912	1911	1928		1935
Socialized medicine	1948				

7. The Cooperative Movement

Workers tried to improve their conditions in other ways, too. In 1844, about 30 English weavers in Rochdale opened a grocery store with \$140 of their savings. At the rate of 4¢ a week, they had taken four years to accumulate it. Food costs were too high; they felt they could save for themselves the profits made by the middleman.

The cooperative bought directly from the manufacturer at whole-

sale prices and sold to the workers at regular market prices. The profits (\$160 the first year) were divided among the owners in proportion to the amount of goods each bought. About 12 years later the Rochdale association had over 1000 members and was dividing among them nearly half a million dollars in profits. Similar stores began to spring up all over England. The cooperative movement spread to other industries: printing, banking, building, insurance. By 1900 nearly one-fifth of the population of England had joined a cooperative society.

The movement spread to the continent, especially to Scandinavia. In Denmark today, 45% of the population belongs to one of the more than 1400 cooperatives. Sweden's cooperatives have over 1,000,000 members. In the United States about 7,500,000 members do more than \$9 billion worth of business a year.

8. The Rise of Socialism

What Is the Meaning of Socialism? Many people believed that the workers' troubles came from the industrial system and the relations between employers and workers. They blamed their troubles on the owners of factories, mines, etc., for poor pay, poverty, slums and illness. People who criticize capitalism in this way are called *socialists*. They say that the government should own the means of production such as mines and factories. They would place all the factories, mines, railroads, steamship lines, banks and insurance companies under public control. The system these people want countries to adopt is called *socialism*.

The Utopian Socialists—Robert Owen. There are many kinds of socialists, as we shall see. The early socialists hated suffering and injustice; but they were not scientific thinkers. They believed that rich and poor could set up a society where all the goods a person needed could be produced in one community. These first socialists were known as *Utopians* (from Sir Thomas More's book on a fictional ideal society called *Utopia*). Among the outstanding Utopians were:

1. **Robert Owen**, a textile factory owner at New Lanark, Scotland. In his factories he reduced hours of work, bettered working conditions and housing and gave his employees a share in management and in profits. Even though he proved that these methods could show profits, other capitalists would not follow suit. Owen's model cooperative at New Harmony, Indiana, failed, but his ideas were copied by later cooperative societies.
2. **Charles Fourier and Claude Saint-Simon**, French writers who favored the establishment of model cooperative communities with government funds.

3. **Louis Blanc.** During the French Revolution of 1848, Blanc, a socialist republican, organized a workers' party under the principles that (a) everyone had a right to work and, (b) the state must give jobs to the unemployed in national workshops (factories set up with government funds). The government then gave the unemployed hard manual work, like ditch digging. When even this was scrapped, the unemployed revolted and many thousands lost their lives in the "Terrible June Days." (See page 263.)

Karl Marx—Founder of Modern or "Scientific" Socialism. Karl Marx (1813-83), a German-born scholar, wrote articles attacking the Prussian government. For this, he was thrown out of the country. He went to Paris and met Louis Blanc, Friedrich Engels and others. But Marx's writings were too radical for the French government, and he was asked to leave. He then went to England where he remained until his death.

Marx and Engels wrote the revolutionary pamphlet called the *Communist Manifesto*, in 1848. The pamphlet explained why workers were poor and what hope they had to better their conditions. Later, he wrote *Das Kapital*, or *Capital*, a three-volume study of capitalism that is considered the "bible of socialism."

What Is Marxian Socialism? In the *Communist Manifesto* and *Das Kapital*, Marx explained his ideas. He wrote about:

1. **The Economic Interpretation of History.** According to Marx, the great changes in history have taken place as a result of the great changes in the economic system. He declared that throughout history the wealthy classes held all power—political, governmental and educational.
2. **The Class Struggle.** Throughout history there has been a struggle between the rich and the poor. In the industrial age, this struggle is between the capitalist and the workers, or proletariat.
3. **Surplus Value.** Marx taught that the laborer, who produces wealth, receives only enough to exist; the larger part, the difference between what the worker produces and what he receives as wages, goes to the capitalist as surplus value (or profits). Critics of socialism point out that this theory omits the part played by capital in starting new businesses, developing old ones, taking the risks involved and providing employment.
4. **Inevitability of Socialism.** As the number of industries grows, wealth will be concentrated in fewer and fewer hands. The workers' conditions will grow worse. In the end, Marx believed, the workers will revolt and seize power and establish a social-

ist state. However, Marx was wrong in many of his ideas. The workers' living standards and working conditions have improved considerably; workers now own some of the comforts and luxuries such as television, refrigerators, cars, homes.

Various Socialist Parties Arise. Marx called himself a "communist" because the term "socialist" was applied to the Utopians. He believed that his "scientific" application of economic laws would convince the workers to prepare themselves for leadership in the future.

To promote this movement, Marx helped found (1864) the International Workingmen's Association, usually called the *First International*. It adopted a socialist platform calling upon workingmen in all countries to unite to overthrow capitalism. However, differences over how Marx's ideas should be interpreted led to its breakup in 1873.

But the socialist movement continued. Socialist parties were formed in a number of European countries. In 1889 a *Second International* was formed. Though they took a strong anti-war stand when World War I broke out in 1914, the socialists felt stronger ties to their own countries than to the international organization.

The German and French socialist parties supported their governments, as did most of the socialists in other countries at war. The major exception to this was Russia, where the Bolsheviks opposed the Czarist government. These splits destroyed the Second International. After World War I the European socialist parties were reorganized. They favored gradual, peaceful and democratic means of winning political control in their own countries. Today the socialist parties are important in most of the western world.

What Is Communism? As we have seen, internal differences led to a split in socialist ranks. The "right" wing, or moderate socialists, wanted the establishment of socialist states through elections. The "left" wing, or radical group, wanted to overthrow governments through revolution if necessary. The radical group of the Russian socialists, called *Bolsheviks*, adopted the name "Communist" after they overthrew the moderate revolutionists in 1917. Other left wing groups throughout the world also took the name Communist so that they would not be mistaken for right wingers. Communist parties are strong in Italy and France, where about one-third of the electorate votes Communist.

The Third, or Communist International, called the *Comintern*, was organized in Russia in 1919. It emphasized world revolution and was supported by Communist parties everywhere. During World War II the Comintern was dissolved in order to show unity with Russia's war allies. However, in 1947 the Communist Information Bureau, or Cominform, was created. It lasted until 1956.

In most western European and American states, communism is weak. In eastern and central Europe (the satellite nations of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania and Albania) it is strong. Communism has also gained a foothold in the Middle East in recent years. Communism controls North Korea, Outer Mongolia, all of China except Formosa and has a large following in Indonesia, India and North Vietnam.

Communist countries are controlled by dictators. All government powers are in the hands of one man, and all phases of national life are directed by him. The satellite countries take orders from Russia.

Other Radical Labor Movements. Some socialists had other ideas. They began movements called *syndicalism* and *anarchism*. Syndicalists believe in "direct action." They say that workers can win better conditions through strikes and sabotage. They favor a general strike to overthrow capitalism. The workers would then control and operate industry. Syndicalists are not strong among the workers.

The anarchists, like the syndicalists, favor direct action and want all governments wiped out.

The Social Catholic Movement. Most Christians disapprove of the anti-religious aspect of socialism, but they also dislike the evils and injustices of the existing economic system. They have tried to bring together socialism and Christianity. Social Catholicism is so called because Catholic clergy and laymen have taken an active part in this movement. Social Catholicism was encouraged in 1891 by Pope Leo XIII, who favored workingmen's associations and, in 1931, Pope Pius XI strengthened this movement by condemning communism. He declared that workingmen should share in the ownership, management and profits of industry. Many Protestant denominations have also backed economic and social reforms.

Today Social Catholic parties exist and exert much influence through the Christian Democratic parties of Italy and Germany, and the moderate Republicans in France.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. Which of the following countries *first* experienced the Industrial Revolution? (a) France, (b) Japan, (c) Russia, (d) Spain.
1.
2. A large percentage of the people in this country belong to co-operatives. Lumber and iron products are its most important manu-

- factures. Which is it? (a) Denmark, (b) Sweden, (c) Switzerland, (d) Netherlands. 2.
3. Which one of the following inventions had the greatest influence during the 19th Century? (a) airplane, (b) automobile, (c) motion pictures, (d) steam engine. 3.
4. The free flow of goods unhampered by government regulations was the basis of an economic theory advocated in *The Wealth of Nations* by (a) Robert Owen, (b) Karl Marx, (c) Thomas Malthus, (d) Adam Smith. 4.
5. What was the most important source of power used in early factories? (a) electricity, (b) animals, (c) steam, (d) water. 5.
6. The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain about the (a) end of the 16th Century, (b) end of the 17th Century, (c) middle of the 18th Century, (d) beginning of the 19th Century. 6.
7. "Her resources of iron and coal did much to promote the beginnings of the Industrial Revolution" describes (a) France, (b) Great Britain, (c) Germany, (d) Russia. 7.
8. Which one of the following was an 18th Century invention? (a) sewing machine, (b) steam engine, (c) telegraph, (d) wheel. 8.
9. For which one of the following is the British factory owner, Robert Owen, famous? (a) kindergarten schools, (b) labor unions, (c) free libraries, (d) consumer cooperatives. 9.
10. Which one of the following is the oldest British tradition? (a) nationalization of industry, (b) social insurance, (c) titles of nobility, (d) universal manhood suffrage. 10.
11. Which man was associated with Engels in advocating government ownership of the means of production? (a) Karl Marx, (b) Robert Owen, (c) Adam Smith, (d) George Bernard Shaw. 11.
12. In which of these countries did the Industrial Revolution occur last? (a) Russia, (b) France, (c) the United States, (d) Germany. 12.
13. Which term best describes the economic policy favored by Karl Marx? (a) reciprocal tariffs, (b) fascism, (c) laissez-faire, (d) socialism. 13.
14. Which one of these was a major reason for the formation of corporations? (a) to avoid government control, (b) to raise large amounts of capital funds, (c) to regulate labor unions, (d) to promote better advertising. 14.
15. Which one of these has been an immediate result of the Industrial Revolution? (a) decrease in production, (b) increase in the number of guilds, (c) growth of the factory system, (d) development of collective farms. 15.
16. Which pair combines inventors associated with the beginning of the Industrial Revolution? (a) Crompton-Hargreaves, (b) Whitney-Howe, (c) Bessemer-Cartwright, (d) Faraday-Stephenson. 16.
17. Which one of the following nations first passed legislation eliminating child labor in factories and mines? (a) France, (b) Great Britain, (c) Germany, (d) Italy. 17.

- 18 Arkwright and Cartwright made their most important contribution in the manufacture of (a) iron products, (b) textiles, (c) transportation vehicles, (d) communication devices. 18.
- 19 Which raw materials were most important for the early Industrial Revolution? (a) petroleum and iron, (b) gold and silver, (c) coal and iron, (d) petroleum and coal. 19.
- 20 The factory system made workers (a) more dependent upon their employers, (b) take greater pride in their work, (c) need more skill, (d) refuse to join labor unions. 20.
- 21 One long term result of the Industrial Revolution in England was the (a) increase in the number of small farms, (b) decline in the merchant marine, (c) rise in the standard of living, (d) extension of the domestic system. 21.
22. Whose ideas are most closely associated with the phrase "dictatorship of the proletariat"? (a) Montesquieu, (b) Rousseau, (c) Darwin, (d) Marx. 22.
23. To overcome some of the harmful effects of the Industrial Revolution, I tried to make a town where my factories were located a clean and healthful community. I was (a) Karl Marx, (b) Leo Tolstoi, (c) James Watt, (d) Robert Owen. 23.
24. The Bessemer Process is related to the making of (a) glass, (b) rubber, (c) steel, (d) uranium. 24.
25. What was the principal fiber used by the textile industry in England during the 18th Century? (a) flax, (b) cotton, (c) silk, (d) wool, 25.
26. The meaning of the term "a government nationalizes an industry" is that (a) branches are established throughout the country, (b) the workers gain control, (c) the government becomes the owner, (d) all foreigners lose their jobs. 26.
- 27 An important result of the Industrial Revolution was the (a) acceptance of divine right monarchy, (b) growth of labor unions, (c) increase in power of the nobility, (d) loss of power by the middle class. 27.
28. The bourgeois of a country are its (a) small farmers and workers, (b) merchants, professional people and factory owners, (c) clergy, (d) nobility. 28.
29. An important result of the Industrial Revolution was the (a) decline in living standards, (b) increased power of the nobility, (c) decline of the bourgeoisie, (d) growth of imperialism. 29.
30. Labor unions first arose in England because (a) English laws protected them, (b) English workers were more educated, (c) it was the home of the Industrial Revolution, (d) the English king favored them. 30.
31. The man responsible for the introduction of social legislation in Germany was (a) Bismarck, (b) William II, (c) Hitler, (d) Adenauer. 31.
32. Most of the large cities that sprang up during the Industrial Revolution in England were situated in the central and northern sections because (a) more people lived there, (b) climate conditions were more favorable, (c) power resources were more plentiful, (d) there was more land available. 32.

33. Who was *not* associated with the Agricultural Revolution? (a) Carnegie, (b) Bakewell, (c) Tull, (d) Townshend. 33.
34. In the first half of the 19th Century English manufacturers favored (a) mercantilism, (b) prohibition of child labor, (c) recognition of trade unions, (d) laissez-faire. 34.
35. Syndicalism favors (a) social legislation, (b) direct economic action against capitalism, (c) gradual political extension of worker control, (d) the formation of international trusts. 35.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

- Utopian Socialists: (a) Karl Marx, (b) Robert Owen, (c) Charles Fourier, (d) Saint-Simon.
- Inventions in the textile industry: (a) power loom, (b) spinning jenny, (c) Bessemer process, (d) water frame.
- Domestic system of production: (a) work done at home, (b) tools owned by workers, (c) specialization of labor, (d) local markets.
- New Industrial Revolution: (a) new power sources, (b) automatic machinery, (c) development of new industries, (d) independence of the workers.
- Improvements in transportation. (a) Robert Fulton, (b) George Stephenson, (c) Thomas A. Edison, (d) Wilbur and Orville Wright.
- Economic results of industrialism: (a) the factory system, (b) expansion of world trade, (c) growth of democracy, (d) increased output of goods.
- Social results of industrialism: (a) increase in leisure time, (b) improved status of women, (c) increase in population, (d) less economic insecurity.
- Methods favored by labor unions: (a) compulsory arbitration, (b) picketing, (c) closed shop, (d) strikes.
- Types of social insurance: (a) accident, (b) life, (c) sickness, (d) unemployment.
- Economic theories of Karl Marx: (a) surplus value, (b) class struggle, (c) inevitability of socialism, (d) increased improvement in workers' living and working conditions.

TRUE-FALSE SUBSTITUTION TEST

Write T in the space provided at the left if the statement is correct; if the statement is false, substitute the correct word or phrase for the word in italics.

- 1. The Industrial Revolution began in *France* about 1750.
- 2. In its early stages the Industrial Revolution was opposed by many *factory owners*.
- 3. The Industrial Revolution started in the *shipbuilding* industry.
- 4. In the 19th Century the Industrial Revolution spread to *Germany* before it reached Italy.
- 5. *Edward Jenner* perfected the steam engine.

- 6. Today's average factory worker has a *higher standard of living* than the worker of 1850.
- 7. The extreme party of the left which seeks the overthrow of government by force is the *Labor Party*.
- 8. The chief cause of the Industrial Revolution was the *increased demand* for goods.
- 9. *John Macadam* is called the "father of modern roadbuilding."
- 10. *Richard Arkwright* is called the "father of the factory system."

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I

- 1. Henry Bessemer
- 2. Louis Blanc
- 3. Eli Whitney
- 4. James Watt
- 5. Gottlieb Daimler
- 6. Henry Ford
- 7. Arthur Young
- 8. Justus von Liebig
- 9. Rochdale
- 10. Karl Marx
- 11. Cyrus W. Field
- 12. Robert Owen



II

- a. His invention freed machines from dependence on water power.
- b. father of the "penny post"
- c. popularizer of the new agricultural methods
- d. associated with the beginnings of the cooperative movement
- e. father of scientific socialism
- f. improved and cheapened the production of steel
- g. speeded communication between Europe and the United States
- h. favored the formation of national workshops in France
- i. improved soil fertility through artificial fertilizers
- j. father of the assembly line.
- k. His invention of the gasoline engine made the automobile possible.
- l. model community at New Lanark
- m. His invention increased the amount of raw cotton available for manufacturing.

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. (a) Describe two conditions in Great Britain that caused the government to turn its attention to the problems of labor before 1939. (b) To what extent has labor legislation in Great Britain solved these problems?
2. Give one difference in meaning between the pairs of terms listed below: (a) medieval guild — modern labor union, (b) domestic system — factory system, (c) socialism — communism, (d) mercantilism — laissez-faire.
3. The Industrial Revolution changed transportation, communication and our way of living; it also increased the rivalry for colonies. (a) Men-

tion two improvements in transportation and communication resulting from the Industrial Revolution. (b) How has the Industrial Revolution influenced our present-day way of living? (c) Show why industrialism led to rivalry for colonies.

4. (a) Describe one important effect the Industrial Revolution has had on ownership of wealth, employer-employee relations, and world trade. (b) Explain and illustrate how the Industrial Revolution has influenced the growth of cities.

5. Show how the immediate effects of the Industrial Revolution were both beneficial and harmful to the worker.

6. Discuss the statement: "The Industrial Revolution is still going on."

7. Discuss three of the following statements, giving historical evidence to prove the truth or falsity of each: (a) The Industrial Revolution has been a mixed blessing. (b) The Industrial Revolution has increased dependence of nations upon each other. (c) "Necessity is the mother of invention." (d) Workers' insecurity has been increased by the Industrial Revolution.

8. Show the connection of each of the following to the labor movement: Robert Owen, Karl Marx, Otto von Bismarck, Louis Blanc, Claude Saint-Simon.

9. Describe (a) the reasons for the growth of labor unions, (b) three methods or tactics used by labor unions to secure their objective, (c) an argument for and an argument against unionism.

10. Compare socialism and communism as to (a) goals, (b) methods of achieving these goals, (c) attitude toward democracy.

11. What part did each of the following play in the growth of the British labor movement? (a) Taff Vale Decision, (b) Trades Disputes Act of 1906, (c) Combination Acts, (d) Suffrage Act of 1867, (e) formation of the Labor Party.

12. (a) How has the Industrial Revolution affected the social and economic security of peoples? (b) Describe two laws that have been adopted to meet this problem in either England or the United States.

13. Give historical evidence to prove that there have been more changes in farming during the past 200 years than during the entire period of world history before 1750.

14. Discuss two important effects of the Industrial Revolution in Europe during the 19th Century upon (a) the status of women, (b) the rise of organized labor, (c) the development of socialism.

15. Discuss the importance of trade between nations, giving specific examples.

16. The past 15 years have been notable for great developments in aviation. (a) Mention two important improvements in aviation that have taken place during this time. (b) Discuss three peacetime uses of the airplane.

17. With reference to one of the fields below, discuss two important ways in which the policies of the English government were affected by the Industrial Revolution. (a) creation of protective tariffs, (b) labor, (c) business management.

18. Show how the early Industrial Revolution affected the living conditions and work of either the farmer or the city worker.



Progress in Science and the Arts

1. The Age of Science

The Nature of Science. The word "science" comes from the Latin word *scientia* (meaning "knowledge"), and refers to man's organized knowledge of nature and the physical world. Our rapid advance in the last 200 years in gaining power over nature, and in reaching out to the universe, has given our epoch the name "the age of science."

The method the scientist uses to develop his theories, test and prove them is called the *scientific method*. Unlike the *deductive method* of reasoning employed by Aristotle and followed by others for thousands of years, the modern scientist uses the *inductive method*. He arrives at conclusions after experiments that test his theory.

The discoveries of one scientist can be checked and re-tested by others, and their findings can be proved. Since the language scientists use is exact, scientists all over the world share each other's knowledge and discoveries.

The following chart shows the development of scientific thought and research through the centuries.

Development of the Scientific Method

Name	Notionality	Work and Contribution
Nicolous Copernicus (1473-1543)	Polish	Tought that the sun was the center of the universe, and the eorth revolved around it.
Francis Bocon (1561-1626)	English	In his <i>Advancement of Leorn-ing</i> he insisted on close observa-tion of, and experiments with noture.
Rene Descortes (1596-1650)	French	His book <i>Discourse on Method</i> stressed the ideol of mothemotical accurocy in experiments.
Johannes Kepler (1571-1630)	Germon	Tested and proved the conclu-sions of Copernicus, and ex-pressed the movements of the planets in mothemotical terms.

Name	Nationality	Work and Contribution
Galilei Galileo (1564-1642)	Italian	He invented the telescope; confirmed the findings of Copernicus; helped to found the science of physics through his experiments with falling bodies.
Isaac Newton (1642-1727)	English	His Laws of Gravitation proved that the pull of gravity keeps objects from flying off the earth.
Charles Lyell (1797-1875)	English	In his <i>Principles of Geology</i> he advanced the theory that the earth is millions of years old, and changes slowly.
Albert Einstein (1879-1955)	German	His <i>Theory of Relativity</i> developed the idea that time, motion and space are relative. His theories led to the discovery of atomic energy.

Chemistry and Physics

Joseph Priestley (1733-1804)	English	Discovered oxygen.
Antoine Lavoisier (1743-1794)	French	Founder of modern chemistry; proved the indestructibility of matter and named many of the chemical elements.
Henry Cavendish (1731-1810)	English	Proved that water was composed of oxygen and hydrogen.
John Dalton (1766-1844)	English	Laid the foundations of the theory that all matter is composed of atoms.
Luigi Galvani (1737-1798)	Italian	Experimented with the conduction of electricity.



RENE DESCARTES—SCIENTIST AND PHILOSOPHER. This 17th Century French philosopher, through his reasoning, made a lasting impression on the intellectual culture of the world. His philosophy taught that nothing should be accepted simply on authority or from books.

Alessandro Volta (1745-1827)	Italian	Invented the electric cell and advanced knowledge of electricity.
Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790)	American	Discovered the source and nature of electricity.
Humphrey Davy (1778-1829)	English	Proved that substances can be decomposed by electricity; invented the miner's safety lamp.
Michael Faraday (1791-1867)	English	Invented the dynamo.
Herman von Helmholtz (1821-1894)	German	His experiments with light and sound led to discoveries regarding sight and hearing.
Thomas Edison (1847-1931)	American	Invented the electric bulb, phonograph, motion picture machine and many others.
Justus von Liebig (1803-1873)	German	Developed artificial fertilizers.
Albert Michelson (1852-1931)	American	He determined the exact speed of light.
Pierre Curie (1859-1906)	French	Discovered radium and made important contributions to the study of radioactivity.
and Marie Curie (1867-1934)	Polish	

Atomic Research

Democritus (c. 400 B.C.)	Greek	Guessed that everything was composed of invisible, indestructible bits of matter.
Wilhelm Roentgen (1845-1923)	German	Discovered X-rays which helped scientists study the structure of the atom.
Albert Einstein (1879-1955)	German	Suggested new scientific theory that matter could be converted into energy.
Ernest Rutherford (1871-1937)	English	Discovered that atoms were composed of electrons and protons, and that bombarding these with radium rays could change them into atoms of other elements.
Robert Millikan (1868-1953)	American	Calculated the mass and weight of atoms.
Henri Becquerel (1852-1908)	French	Investigated uranium and radioactive substances.
Enrico Fermi (1901-1954)	Italian	By bombarding uranium with neutrons he converted it into another element.

<i>Name</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Work and Contribution</i>
Harold Urey (1893-)	American	Discovered heavy hydrogen.
Lisa Meitner (1878-)	German	Split uranium atoms with neutrons, creating tremendous heat.
Otto Hahn (1879-)		
Nils Bohr (1885-)		
J. Robert Oppenheimer (1904-)	American	Shawed that the number of electrons in an atom's orbit exactly balances the number of protons in its nucleus. "Father of the atomic bomb."
Edward Teller (1908-)	American	"Father of the hydrogen bomb."

Biology and Geology

Anton Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723)	Dutch	Developed microscope which made possible the study of micro-organisms.
Carolus Linnaeus (1707-1778)	Swedish	Father of modern botany.
Matthias Schleiden (1804-1881)	German	Developed theory that cells are the basis of all living matter.
Theodor Schwann (1810-1882)		
Charles Lyell (1797-1875)	English	Father of modern geology.
Jean Lamarck (1744-1829)	French	Developed an early theory of evolution.
Charles Darwin (1809-1882)	English	His <i>Origin of Species</i> developed the theory of evolution.
Louis Agassiz (1807-1873)	Swiss-American	Made important studies of fish; fossils and glaciers.
Gregor Mendel (1822-1884)	Austrian	Developed laws of heredity.
Francis Galton (1822-1911)	English	Made important studies in heredity and meteorology.
Thomas Huxley (1825-1895)	English	Foremost advocate of Darwin's theory of evolution.
Luther Burbank (1849-1926)	American	Created new flowers, fruits and vegetables by cross-breeding.
William Harvey (1578-1657)	English	Discovered how blood circulates through the body.
Edward Jenner (1749-1823)	English	Found vaccination against smallpox.

Medicine

<i>Name</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Work and Contribution</i>
William Marton (1819-1868)	American	Used ether to prevent pain during operations.
Joseph Lister (1827-1912)	English	Developed use of antiseptics to prevent infections.
Louis Pasteur (1822-1895)	French	Developed the germ theory of disease; discovered treatment for rabies.
Robert Koch (1843-1910)	German	Isolated the bacteria that cause tuberculosis.
Edward Trudeau (1848-1915)	American	Discovered a treatment for tuberculosis.
Ilya Metchnikoff (1845-1916)	Russian	Showed that white blood corpuscles fight disease.
Wilhelm Roentgen (1845-1923)	German	His discovery of X-rays helped in treatment of disease.
Emil von Behring (1854-1917)	German	Discovered diphtheria antitoxin.
Walter Reed (1851-1902)	American	Found that mosquitoes transmit yellow fever.
Alexander Fleming (1881-1955)	English	Discovered penicillin.
Selman Waksman (1888-)	American	Discovered streptomycin.
Frederick Banting (1891-1942)	Canadian	Used insulin to treat diabetes.
Jonas Salk (1914-)	American	Discovered a vaccine against polio.



CERVANTES—17th CENTURY SPANISH NOVELIST. Cervantes was nicknamed *el Manco*, "the handless one," because his left hand was maimed in battle. His masterpiece is *Don Quixote*.

PETER PAUL RUBENS—FLEMISH PAINTER. Rubens is best known for his *Descent from the Cross*. He painted portraits, landscapes, historical and sacred subjects.



Future of Science. With these and many other great discoveries, man has widened his knowledge of himself and the world in which he lives. His life on this earth has been made longer and richer. Science, applied to industry and agriculture, has made more and better products. Medical discoveries have wiped out many diseases and started research on others.

Public interest in both pure and industrial science has increased. Governments have invested millions in research. In both World Wars, scientific talent concentrated on war equipment. The outstanding development during World War II was the atom bomb.

Man has learned to destroy himself with the atom bomb, the hydrogen bomb, and ballistic missiles. These, together with man-made satellites, have abolished time and distance. But since 1945 much research has been done on peacetime uses of atomic energy.

All this leaves us with the big question: will science destroy man, or can man control science? The answer lies with man himself.

2. Development in the Arts

Writers, painters and musicians usually reflect the spirit of the times in which they live. Their works reveal much about the people, customs and events of their day. They can be divided into the Classical, Romantic, Realistic and Modern periods.

A. The Classical Period

1. The Classical Period of the 18th Century. The chief characteristics of classicism were: (a) appeal to reason rather than feeling; (b) emphasis on the style rules of ancient Greeks and Romans; (c) appeal to aristocrats and the wealthy; (d) formality. The following chart shows the contributions of writers, artists and musicians of this period.

A. Literature

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
Jonathan Swift (1667-1745)	English	<i>Gulliver's Travels</i>	Satires on many aspects of 18th Century life.
Alexander Pope (1688-1744)	English	<i>Essay on Man</i>	A poem on human nature.
Edward Gibbon (1737-1794)	English	<i>Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire</i>	Classic historian.
Voltaire (1694-1778)	French	<i>Letters on the English</i>	Ridiculed the injustices of governments.
Gottfried Lessing (1729-1781)	German	<i>Nathan the Wise</i>	Dramatist; stressed religious toleration.

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
B. Art			
Joshua Reynolds (1723-1792)	English	<i>The Age of Innocence</i>	Fashionable portrait painter.
Thomas Gainsborough (1727-1788)	English	<i>The Blue Boy</i>	Famous portrait painter.
Jacques David (1748-1825)	French	<i>Coronation of Napoleon</i>	A conservative with fixed rules of painting.
C. Music			
Johann Sebastian Bach (1685-1750)	German	<i>Well-Tempered Clavier</i>	Much church and instrumental music.
George Frederick Handel (1685-1759)	German	<i>The Messiah</i>	Operas and choral music.
Joseph Haydn (1732-1809)	Austrian	<i>The Creation</i>	First great master of the symphony.
Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791)	Austrian	<i>Marriage of Figaro</i>	Composing genius and pianist.

B. The Romantic Period

2. The Romantic Period. Romanticism, which developed after the Napoleonic period, blended love of nature with love of country. The medieval world was rediscovered and the past romanticized. Emotion and imagination replaced reason. The following chart outlines the work of outstanding representatives of Romanticism.

A. Literature

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
William Wordsworth (1770-1850)	English	<i>Tintern Abbey</i>	Glorified beauties of nature.
Samuel Coleridge (1772-1834)	English	<i>Ancient Mariner</i>	Mystic poetry.
Lord Byron (1788-1824)	English	<i>Don Juan</i>	Rebelled against social customs.
Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822)	English	<i>To a Skylark</i>	Emotional appeal in poetry.
John Keats (1795-1821)	English	<i>Eve of St. Agnes</i>	Beauty in poetry.
Walter Scott (1771-1832)	English	<i>Ivanhoe</i>	Glamour of the Middle Ages.

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
Alfred Tennyson (1809-1892)	English	<i>Idylls of the King</i>	Romantic medieval life.
Victor Hugo (1802-1885)	French	<i>Les Miserables</i>	Sympathy for the oppressed.
Alexandre Dumas (1802-1870)	French	<i>The Three Musketeers</i>	Romantic historical novels.
Johann Goethe (1749-1832)	German	<i>Faust</i>	Poet, dramatist and novelist.
Johann von Schiller (1759-1805)	German	<i>William Tell</i>	Great German dramatist.

B. Music

Frederic Chopin (1810-1849)	Polish	<i>Polonaises</i>	Lytic compositions for piano.
Richard Wagner (1813-1883)	German	<i>Nibelungenlied</i>	Great Germanic operas.
Johannes Brahms (1833-1897)	German	<i>Hungarian Dances</i>	Romantic composer and pianist.
Felix Mendelssohn (1809-1847)	German	<i>Overture to Midsummer Night's Dream</i>	Dramatic works and songs.
Johann Strauss (1825-1899)	Austrian	<i>The Blue Danube</i>	Waltzes and operettas.
Franz Schubert (1797-1828)	Austrian	<i>Unfinished Symphony</i>	Poetic songs.
Georges Bizet (1838-1875)	French	<i>Carmen</i>	Romantic operas.
Charles François Gounod (1818-1893)	French	<i>Romeo and Juliet</i>	Romantic operas and songs (<i>Ave Maria</i>).
Peter Tchaikovsky (1840-1893)	Russian	<i>Pathétique Symphony</i>	Strong nationalist music.
Nikolai Rimski-Korsakov (1844-1908)	Russian	<i>Scheherazade</i>	The Russian past gave him themes for operas and symphonies.
William Gilbert (1836-1911) Arthur Sullivan (1842-1900)	English	<i>Mikado</i>	Many light operas.
Franz Liszt (1811-1886)		<i>Hungarian Rhapsody</i>	Romantic music for piano.
Anton Dvorak (1841-1904)	Czech	<i>New World Symphony</i>	Melodic works for piano and orchestra.
Edvard Grieg (1843-1907)	Norwegian	<i>Peer Gynt Suite</i>	Dances and songs with national flavor.

C. Painting

John Constable (1776-1837)	English	<i>The Cornfield</i>	Realistic landscapes.
Joseph Turner (1775-1851)	English	<i>Solway Moss</i>	Water-colorist; sea scenes.
Jean Baptiste Corot (1796-1875)	French	<i>Morning</i>	Landscapes.
Ferdinand Delacroix (1799-1863)	French	<i>The Blind Milton</i>	Romantic paintings and murals.

C. The Realistic Period

3. *The Realistic Period.* During this period writers, painters and sculptors presented life as they thought it really was, and stressed everyday subjects and problems. It was strongest in the second half of the 19th Century. The following are outstanding examples.

A. Literature

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
Gustave Flaubert (1821-1880)	French	<i>Madame Bovary</i>	Novels of realism.
Edmond (1822-1896) and Jules de Goncourt (1830-1870)	French	<i>Madame Gervaisais</i>	Novels of contemporary manners.
Alphonse Daudet (1840-1897)	French	<i>Tartarin</i>	Novelist; keen observation of French people.
George Meredith (1828-1909)	English	<i>Diana of the Crossways</i>	Journalist; novels; character analysis.
Henry James (1843-1916)	English	<i>The Ambassadors</i>	Novels about the leisure class.
Bjornstjerne Bjornson (1832-1910)	Norwegian	<i>A Happy Boy</i>	Poems, novels; political and social leader.
Hermann Sudermann (1857-1928)	German	<i>War</i>	Realistic social novels.
Luigi Pirandello (1867-1936)	Italian	<i>As You Desire Me</i>	Realistic novels and plays.
Anton Chekhov (1860-1904)	Russian	<i>Cherry Orchard</i>	Portrayed moods in stories and plays.
Maxim Gorki (1868-1936)	Russian	<i>The Mother</i>	Novels, plays; social problems.

B. Sculpture

Jules Dolou (1838-1902)	French	<i>Triumph of the Republic</i>	Realism in portrait busts.
Auguste Rodin (1840-1917)	French	<i>The Thinker</i>	Naturalism and strength of style.
Augustus Saint-Gaudens (1848-1907)	American	<i>The Puritan</i>	Realistic statues of well-known Americans.

D. The Modern Age

4. *The Modern Age* (1900 to the present). Life and society are interpreted from individual viewpoints. Impressionism and cubism in painting, experimentation in writing, new tone effects, have all created a culture that is ever richer and more varied.

A. Literature

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
Charles Dickens (1812-1870)	English	<i>Tale of Two Cities</i>	Realistic popular novels.
Thomas Hardy (1840-1928)	English	<i>Return of the Native</i>	Great Victorian story teller.
Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936)	English	<i>Gunga Din</i>	Vivid, forceful stories of imperial England.
Herbert George Wells (1866-1946)	English	<i>War of the Worlds</i>	Scientific romances.
John Galsworthy (1867-1933)	English	<i>The Forsythe Sago</i>	Novels of well-to-do English society.
George Bernard Shaw (1856-1950)	English	<i>Man and Superman</i>	Satiric plays on militarism, poverty, ignorance and sentimentality.
John Masefield (1878-)	English	<i>Salt Water Ballads</i>	Colorful stories of the sea.
Emile Zola (1840-1902)	French	<i>J'Accuse</i>	Critic of French society.
Guy de Maupassant (1850-1893)	French	<i>The Diamond Necklace</i>	Short stories about common people.
Honoré Balzac (1799-1850)	French	<i>Human Comedy</i>	Realistic novels of French society.
Anatole France (1844-1924)	French	<i>Penguin Island</i>	Satires on people and customs.

Name	Nationality	Typical Work	Contribution
Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900)	German	<i>Thus Spake Zarathustra</i>	Poetry glorifying the "superman."
Gerhart Hauptmann (1862-1946)	German	<i>The Weavers</i>	Dramatic poetry.
Thomas Mann (1875-1955)	German	<i>Magic Mountain</i>	Novels about middle-class Germans.
Ivan Turgenev (1818-1883)	Russian	<i>Fathers and Sons</i>	Novels about revolutionary reform.
Fedor Dostoevski (1821-1881)	Russian	<i>Crime and Punishment</i>	Novels of Russian life.
Leo Tolstai (1828-1910)	Russian	<i>War and Peace</i>	Novelist and philosopher.
Henrik Ibsen (1828-1906)	Norwegian	<i>A Doll's House</i>	Satires on moral and social problems.

B. Music

Claude Debussy (1862-1918)	French	<i>Claire de Lune</i>	Leader of ultra-modern French music.
Maurice Ravel (1875-1937)	French	<i>Bolero</i>	New effects in ballets.
Igor Stravinsky (1882-)	Russian	<i>The Firebird</i>	Tonal fantasies in music.
Sergei Prokofiev (1891-)	Russian	<i>Peter and the Wolf</i>	Bold fairy tales in music.
Dimitri Shostakovich (1904-)	Russian	<i>Seventh Symphony</i>	Soviet composer.

C. Art

Edouard Manet (1832-1883)	French	<i>Olympia</i>	Landscapes; originator of impressionism.
Paul Cezanne (1839-1906)	French	<i>Card Players</i>	Still lifes and landscapes.
Claude Monet (1840-1926)	French	<i>Grand Canal</i>	Impressionist landscapes.
Henri Matisse (1869-1954)	French	<i>The Three Sisters</i>	Leader of Fauvists.
Paul Gauguin (1848-1903)	French	<i>Seule</i>	Brilliant Tahitian paintings.
Vincent van Gogh (1853-1890)	Dutch	<i>Cafe in Arles</i>	Dazzling use of color.
Pablo Picasso (1881-)	Spanish	<i>Woman in White</i>	Painter, sculptor; founder of cubism.

Architecture. Progress in architecture has been very slow. The most significant developments in recent times have been the American skyscraper with its steel framework reaching hundreds of feet into the sky, and the use of glass, aluminum and color in office buildings and houses of worship

3. Spread of Public Education

A Result of Industrialism. The idea of public education is fairly new. Before the 19th Century only a small percentage of the people in the world could read and write. Education was for the upper classes.

As industrialization grew, skilled and educated people were needed to run the new machines. Standards of living improved. The production of books increased; new methods of communication were developed. All this led to wider educational opportunities. An educated population came to be regarded as an asset to government.

Growth of Popular Education.

1. In England. Before the 19th Century, English education was controlled by the Church, charitable organizations and private schools. Among the latter (known, oddly, as "public schools") were Eton and Harrow, schools for the children of wealthy and aristocratic families. The growth of popular education may be traced through a series of acts of Parliament:

- a. The Act of 1833 granted funds to Church Schools.
- b. The Forster Act of 1870 set up free public schools for the first time.
- c. The Fisher Act of 1918 provided free, compulsory education for all children up to 14.
- d. The Education Act of 1947 increased the compulsory school age to 15.

2. In France. Napoleon I created the University of France to supervise French education. This university still licenses teachers, plans courses of study and selects textbooks for all elementary and secondary schools. Under Louis Philippe (1830-48) free elementary schools for the poor were opened in many parts of France. During the Third Republic, the Ferry Laws (1881-86) set up a system of government-supported elementary schools. The Associations Law of 1901 did away with many religious schools, leaving the state as the chief support of education.

3. In Germany. Public schools were established in Prussia under Frederick the Great. During the Napoleonic Wars, von Humboldt improved this system. By 1870 Prussia had organized a system of public schools that was copied by other German states. Before

1914 the German educational system was one of the finest in the world, although the universities were limited to the children of well-to-do families. The Nazi corruption of all education and culture destroyed this system. Present-day Western Germany is trying to repair the damage.

4. *In Russia.* Elementary education was in the hands of the Church in the 19th Century. After 1860 the government helped support Church-connected and country schools. However, before 1914 more than 80% of the population could not read or write.

Under the Communists, education has greatly expanded. Free compulsory education under the control of the state was introduced in the 1920's and illiteracy has been reduced. (For other details on Soviet education, see page 385).

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



Pasteur

1. My novels telling about the hardships of the English working classes stimulated the social reform movement of the 19th Century. (a) Robert Browning, (b) Charles Dickens, (c) Rudyard Kipling, (d) Alfred Tennyson. 1. _____
2. I was considered a child genius, since I wrote my first minuet at the age of five. My greatest composition was *Requiem* but I am better known for the operas *Don Giovanni* and the *Marriage of Figaro*. (a) Bach, (b) Goethe, (c) Mozart, (d) Strauss. 2. _____
3. My musical compositions are filled with the vigor of Scandinavian life. One of my most frequently played compositions is the music written for the story of Peer Gynt. (a) Amundsen, (b) Haakon, (c) Grieg, (d) Melchior. 3. _____
4. My works, such as *Les Miserables* and *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*, criticized poverty and injustice. I was exiled for defending the Second French Republic against Louis Napoleon. (a) Dumas, (b) Pasteur, (c) Remarque, (d) Victor Hugo. 4. _____
5. X-rays were discovered by (a) Jenner, (b) Lister, (c) Marconi, (d) Roentgen. 5. _____
6. Which scientist published his views on evolution through natural selection? (a) Francis Bacon, (b) Gregor Mendel, (c) Michael Faraday, (d) Charles Darwin. 6. _____
7. Which group pairs the two scientists that were prominently identified with the germ theory of disease? (a) Marie Curie — Florence Nightingale, (b) Joseph Lister — Wilhelm Roentgen, (c) Robert Koch — Louis Pasteur, (d) Edward Jenner — William Harvey. 7. _____
8. A contribution to science made by Edward Jenner was (a) vaccination against smallpox, (b) use of anesthetics, (c) the X-ray machine, (d) the germ theory of disease. 8. _____
9. The theory that objects fall toward the earth according to the same

- laws that govern the motion of planets around the sun was developed by (a) Roger Bacon, (b) Isaac Newton, (c) William Harvey, (d) Louis Pasteur. 9.
10. The scientist who discovered the principle of the electric dynamo was (a) Michael Faraday, (b) Joseph Priestley, (c) James Watt, (d) Alessandro Volta. 10.
11. Charles Darwin developed the theory that (a) germs are the cause of diseases, (b) the earth revolves around the sun, (c) evolution takes place through the process of natural selection, (d) blood circulates in the body. 11.
12. The scientist who first extracted penicillin from mold was (a) Frederick Banting, (b) Alexander Fleming, (c) Robert Koch, (d) Louis Pasteur. 12.
13. The author of the theory of relativity whose ideas laid the foundation for the discovery of atomic energy was (a) Lyell, (b) Darwin, (c) Einstein, (d) Davy. 13.
14. Nils Bohr, Lisa Meitner and Enrico Fermi are associated with the discovery of (a) laws of gravitation, (b) atomic energy control, (c) X-rays, (d) artificial fertilizer. 14.
15. If alive today, Alexander Fleming and Edward Trudeau would be (a) running for political office, (b) the heads of hospital research departments, (c) in charge of missile production, (d) officers in the Air Corps. 15.

MATCHING TEST 1

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I

I

- 1. Edward Gibbon
- 2. Victor Hugo
- 3. Alexandre Dumas
- 4. Johann Strauss
- 5. Charles Dickens
- 6. Rudyard Kipling
- 7. Thomas Mann
- 8. Leo Tolstoi
- 9. Henrik Ibsen
- 10. George Bernard Shaw

II

- a. the poet who idealized imperialism
- b. novelist who wrote about the downtrodden peasants in Russia
- c. English writer of satirical plays and novels
- d. Norwegian dramatist with radical viewpoints on moral and social problems
- e. the "waltz king"
- f. *His Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* is a literary as well as historical masterpiece
- g. romantic French novelist whose writings included *The Three Musketeers*
- h. glorified the "superman"
- i. novels about middle class Germany
- j. British novelist who attacked the abuses of Industrial Revolution
- k. French novelist who expressed sympathy for oppressed peoples

CHARLES
DICKENS



MATCHING TEST 2

I

- 1. Jonathan Swift
- 2. Handel
- 3. Mozart
- 4. Lord Byron
- 5. Goethe
- 6. Wagner
- 7. Bizet
- 8. Dvorak
- 9. Galsworthy
- 10. Coleridge

II

- a. *Marriage of Figaro*
- b. *Faust*
- c. *Carmen*
- d. *The Forsyte Saga*
- e. *Niebelungenlied*
- f. *Gulliver's Travels*
- g. *Don Juan*
- h. *Romeo and Juliet*
- i. *Ancient Mariner*
- j. *New World Symphony*
- k. *The Messiah*

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Living conditions have been improved by the work of people in such fields as medicine, education, social welfare, science and invention. Name three persons who have helped to improve living conditions in Europe since 1750 and describe briefly the work of each person named.

2. It is commonly said that Europe is the cultural center of our civilization. Discuss this statement, giving examples from each of three fields of culture.

3. Show how the inventions or discoveries of each of three of the following have influenced either scientific development or human welfare: (a) Michael Faraday, (b) Edward Jenner, (c) Guglielmo Marconi, (d) the Wright Brothers, (e) James Watt.

4. "Behind the equipment and practices of a modern hospital is the work of scientists from many parts of the world." Discuss this statement, mentioning the names of five scientists and their contributions to the equipment and practices of a modern hospital.

5. Identify each of five of the following and indicate one way in which he gained world fame: (a) Albert Einstein, (b) Edward Teller, (c) Louis Pasteur, (d) Auguste Rodin, (e) George Bernard Shaw, (f) Vincent Van Gogh, (g) Edvard Grieg, (h) Richard Wagner.

6. Scientists have influenced civilization to a great extent. (a) Describe the method scientists use in solving their problems. (b) Show how each of three of the following scientists has contributed to human progress: Pasteur, Madame Curie, Mendel, Jenner.

7. "The pen is mightier than the sword." Describe the importance of the following writers on their times: (a) Adam Smith, (b) Charles Darwin, (c) George Bernard Shaw, (d) Victor Hugo, (e) Leo Tolstoy.

8. Give one outstanding figure who has achieved an important discovery in the following fields, describing the effect of his discovery: (a) transportation, (b) medicine, (c) chemistry, (d) electricity. (e) biology.

9. Developments in science in the last 200 years have enabled man both to advance his welfare and to destroy himself. Discuss this statement, giving facts to justify your point of view.



The Growth of Democracy

What Is Democracy? The word "democracy" comes from the Greek (*demos*, the people + *kratein*, to rule) and means "rule of and by the people." This is how it differs from "autocracy," the rule of one, and from "aristocracy" or "oligarchy," the rule of the few.

Along with nationalism (see pages 280-294) and industrialism, democracy has helped to shape the world we live in. Just as absolutism (all power given to one person or to the government) was characteristic of the world before the 19th Century, so democracy is characteristic of the modern world.

The more of the following features that exist in a country, the more democratic that country is:

1. **Free Elections.** Voters cast ballots in secrecy to insure privacy. The voters elect representatives to make laws for them. There is a choice of candidates, not just one.
2. **Universal Suffrage.** All citizens above a certain age, male or female, regardless of race, religion or property qualifications, have the right to elect these representatives.
3. **Majority Rule.** The majority party rules the country, with the rights of the minority always protected. A minority party has a chance to become the majority through elections.
4. **Limited Power of the Government.** The powers and responsibilities of the different branches of the government are described in a constitution. Provisions are made for peaceful changes when desired by a majority of the voters.
5. **Individual Liberties.** Freedom of speech, press, religion, petition, trial by jury, and protection of workers' rights, are all guaranteed and protected by the government.
6. **Political Parties.** These parties represent the variety of opinions that exist in a democratic country.
7. **Provisions for Social Welfare.** Free education, decent housing, helping to look after people in their old age or in times of trouble are provided for. These forms of economic democracy have grown very important in the 20th Century.
8. **Individual Sense of Identification with Democracy.** Each citizen feels free, yet part of a union with other free citizens.

A Review of Different Forms of Democracy. The most common form of government in the ancient world was absolutism. The king,

emperor or pharaoh ruled by divine right with all power concentrated in his hands. Democratic government made its first appearance among the Athenians, during the 6th and 5th centuries B.C. By the reforms of Draco, Solon, Clisthenes and Pericles, the Greeks developed a direct form of democratic government. The citizens elected their officials annually, made their own laws, and created a jury system. Moreover, these laws were *written*, so that no class could claim special privilege. However, measured by today's standards, Athenian democracy—with its limitations on citizenship, dependence on slavery and low status of women—was incomplete.

The Romans built a representative system of government, a written code of laws and the idea of one world, with equal protection for all its citizens. (See page 57.)

During the thousand years between the fall of Rome and the discovery of America, there was little democracy in western Europe. The people had no rights; absolutism was the rule. Feudal law was for the protection of the high born and, to a lesser extent, for the serfs. Under feudal law the first-born male child had the sole right of inheritance to the entire family estate. This right is known as *primogeniture*.

It was not until 1215, when King John was forced to sign the Magna Carta, that democracy began to move ahead. The Hebrews and Christians practiced democracy in their doctrine of the brotherhood of man. They wanted to help the poor and help a man keep his dignity.

Throughout all this period, the beginnings of representative government could be seen in some countries. The English Parliament traces its origin to the Great Council of the Anglo-Saxon kings and the calling of the Model Parliament by Edward I in 1295. In France, the first Estates-General met in 1302. The Republic of Switzerland in 1291 had one of the first forms of democratic government.

Democracy in the Modern World. Democracy in its modern form grew out of 17th and 18th century ideas expressed by Locke, Rousseau, Montesquieu and Jefferson. They proclaimed that the people should rule rather than a king who claimed divine right.

Since 1789 democracy has gone through various periods: (1) from 1789 to 1815 the influence of the French Revolution helped to strengthen democracy and weaken autocracy; (2) from 1815 to 1848 reactionary leaders under Metternich's guidance tried to stamp out democratic ideas; (3) from 1848 on, the principles of democratic government were spread throughout Europe, the Americas, Asia and, in recent years, Africa; (4) from 1945 there has been a struggle between democracy and communism known as the Cold War (see page 436)

1. The Beginnings of Democracy in England

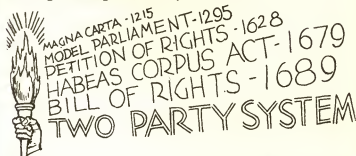
Early Steps in Democratic Development. By 1800 England had become a limited monarchy. The king no longer was an absolute ruler and real power lay in the hands of Parliament. This loss of royal power had taken place gradually over the centuries, and is described in detail in Chapter 11.

Step	Date	Result
Magna Carta	1215	Limited the taxing powers of the king to those granted by the Great Council of Nobles; prohibited imprisonment of a noble except after a trial by his equals, later extended to other classes.
Model Parliament	1295	Edward I added representatives of the middle class to the lords and clergy; this led to the two-house Parliament.
Petition of Right	1628	King Charles I agreed not to levy taxes, imprison citizens without trial or to quarter soldiers in homes without the consent of Parliament.
Habeas Corpus Act	1679	Protected persons from illegal imprisonment.
Bill of Rights	1689	The king was forbidden to raise an army, levy taxes without the consent of Parliament or suspend any laws passed by Parliament. Freedom of debate was guaranteed to members of Parliament. The right of petition was protected. It marked the transfer of power from the king to Parliament.
Two-Party System	17th Century	Earliest political groups were the Cavaliers and Roundheads of the Civil War and Cromwell period. Later become Tories and Whigs; still later were Conservatives and Liberals.
Development of Cabinet	1689 and after	During the reigns of William and Mary and the early Hanoverian kings, the Cabinet, representing the majority group in Parliament, grew in power and responsibility.

Lack of Democracy in 1800. In spite of all this, England in 1800 was still far from democratic. Undemocratic features were:

1. **Limited Suffrage.** Property and religious qualifications kept five out of every six Englishmen from voting. Women could not vote.

2. **Limited Office-Holding.** Only members of the Church of England, with large property holdings, could be elected to the House of Commons.
3. **Open Elections.** Voting was by a show of hands. This encouraged corruption, bribery and threats.



THE TORCH OF ENLIGHTENMENT. The beginnings of democracy can be traced to the signing of the Magna Carta by King John. Though democracy was slow to take hold in some parts of the world, it has made steady progress. Here are some of the big forward steps toward democracy.

4. **Unfair Representation.** Birmingham and Manchester, typical of the new cities that had grown because of industrialization, had no representation, while other boroughs with far less population were over-represented. The latter were called "rotten boroughs."
5. **Control of Parliament by the Lords.** The House of Lords, a hereditary body, had more influence in government than the elected Commons. Many representatives of the "rotten boroughs" were hand-picked by the landowners. This helped to keep the Lords' control over the lower House.
6. **No Pay for Parliamentary Members.** This limited membership in the Commons to the richer groups.

2. Political Democracy in England

Suffrage Is Gradually Extended. The undemocratic British government in the late 18th Century had created much discontent among the growing middle class. However, the movement for reform was stopped by the French Revolution. The Napoleonic wars took up so much of the government's and the people's attention that all talk of change was halted. After the Congress of Vienna the British government, led by the Tory Party and the Duke of Wellington, favored reactionary policies. The government then passed the Six Acts in 1819 which forbade public meetings and the publication of

books considered seditious (stirring up discontent against the government). England won universal suffrage by the "installment method." Gradually, one class or group after another won the right to vote, as this table shows:

Reform Bill	Leader	Group Winning Vote
1832	Lord Russell and Earl Grey (Whigs)	Middle class; voting qualifications reduced; seats redistributed from "rotten boroughs" to growing industrial cities.
1867	Benjamin Disraeli (diz-ray'-lee) (Conservative)	City workers. Reduced voting qualifications further.
1884	William Gladstone (Liberal)	Country workers and small farmers.
1918	Lloyd George (Liberal)	All men over 21 and most women over 30.
1928	Stanley Baldwin (Conservative)	All women over 21.

The Reform Bill of 1832. After 1830 reform could no longer be postponed. The influence of the 1830 revolution in France spread to England. The Prime Minister and Whig Party leader, Earl Grey, introduced a bill in 1831 to broaden the suffrage. The Tory majority in the House of Lords turned it down, and Parliament was dissolved. When new elections were held the Whigs were returned with a majority, but again the Lords threatened to prevent passage of the bill. It was not until King William IV threatened to create enough new Liberal Lords to get the bill through the House of Lords that the bill was passed.

The number of voters was not greatly increased by this measure (the proportion of voters to the total population was increased from one in 32 to one in 22). However, it resulted in the ending of the political monopoly which the agricultural and commercial aristocracy had had in Parliament for 150 years. The new industrialist class became the chief power in the British government.

The Chartist Movement. The working class was dissatisfied with the Reform Bill of 1832. It did not give them the right to vote. Many workers organized a movement to bring about wider democracy. They wanted a charter that would give them (1) universal manhood suffrage; (2) annual elections of Parliament; (3) equal electoral districts; (4) vote by secret ballot; (5) removal of property qualifications for members of Parliament, and (6) payment of salaries to members of Parliament.

From 1838 to 1848 the Chartists campaigned to win these goals. In 1848 they presented Parliament with a "monster petition" of

over 1,000,000 signatures. This effort failed and the movement died out, but all the aims of the Chartists were achieved during the next 60 years.

Other Reforms of This Period. Democratic advances were made by various groups during the 19th Century. Among other reforms were:

1. Modification of the Combinations Acts in 1824-25 to permit the formation of unions.
2. The Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829, which admitted Catholics to Parliament.
3. The abolition of Negro slavery throughout the Empire in 1833.
4. The Jewish Emancipation Act of 1858, which admitted Jews to Parliament.



MOTHER OF PARLIAMENTS. The word "parliament" was probably first applied to an assembly of nobles and clergy which was called to advise the king. Later, King Edward assembled a Model Parliament attended by representatives of counties and towns as well as nobles and clergy. At first these three classes met together, but later commoners met as the House of Commons; nobles and clergy met as the House of Lords.

Reform Bill of 1867. Benjamin Disraeli, a leader of the Conservative (formerly Tory) Party, proposed a bill which lowered property qualifications for voting to permit city workers the vote. Conservatives and left-wing Liberals (formerly Whigs), joined forces to pass the law in 1867.

By this "leap in the dark," as the bill was called, the number of voters was almost doubled. Disraeli hoped to be able to win the workers to the support of his party; but he was disappointed. The working class voted for the Liberals.

Reform Bill of 1884. Two million farm workers won the right to vote when the Liberal Party leader, William Gladstone, pushed through the Bill of 1884. The following year Commons seats were redistributed so that approximately equal constituencies, or districts, were created. Thus, more representation was given to the heavily populated and industrialized cities.

Other Reforms of the Late 19th Century. By the close of the century, many of the Chartist demands had been realized.

1. All property qualifications for members of Parliament had been abolished by 1858.
2. The secret, or Australian, ballot had been introduced in 1872.
3. Equal electoral districts had been secured by 1885.
4. Universal suffrage had almost been achieved by 1884.

Suffrage Laws of the 20th Century. In 1918 Parliament adopted a law which (1) gave all men over 21 and (2) most women of 30 years of age the right to vote.

In 1928 all women 21 years and older were given the vote. Thus, over 100 years, universal suffrage had been won.

Making Parliament Democratic — the Lord's Veto Act of 1911. In the British Parliament the hereditary House of Lords was always controlled by Conservative landowners. The House of Commons, as the suffrage was extended, came more and more to represent the wishes of the English people. However, since the consent of both Houses was needed to adopt legislation, the Lords could easily prevent passage of certain bills.

The matter came to a head in 1909 when social security laws were passed by the House of Commons. Lloyd George, Chancellor of the Exchequer (Treasury), wanted to tax the rich to pay for them. The Lords defeated the proposal. In the election of 1910 the people returned the Liberals to power. Lloyd George re-introduced his budget bill, and the Lords passed it.

The Liberal Party then introduced a bill to curb the powers of the House of Lords, but this was defeated by the Lords. Parliament was dissolved, elections held, and the people sided with the Liberals. But the Lords still would not accept the curbs placed on them by the bill. They yielded only when the King (George V) threatened to create enough new Liberal peers to insure the bill's passage. In April, 1911, the bill was passed.

The act provided that (1) a finance bill passed by Commons would automatically become law one month after being presented to the House of Lords, whether the Lords approved it or not; (2) other bills might become law, in spite of rejection by the Lords, if they were passed by the Commons in three successive sessions over a period of at least two years; (3) general elections for the House of Commons would be held at least every fifth year, instead of every seventh year; (4) members of Parliament would be paid £400 a year as salary.

In 1949 the Labor Party adopted a bill which further reduced the Lords' veto power to one, instead of two, years. The House of Lords now plays only a minor role; real control is in the hands of the House of Commons.

Other Democratic Reforms.

1. **Social security** legislation included: workmen's compensation (1906), old age pensions (1908), minimum wages (1911) and medical insurance (1947).
2. **Educational reforms** included: (a) the *Forster Act* of 1870, which provided for construction of elementary schools and increased financial support of church schools; (b) the *Education Act* of 1902, providing for the support of both public and private schools under a system of local taxation; (c) the *Fisher Act* of 1918, creating a national system of free elementary schools and requiring attendance of children up to the age of 14; (d) the *Act* of 1947, increasing compulsory education to 15 years of age.

England's Tariff Policies Change. Before 1850 the British government had levied tariffs (a tax on imports) called *Corn Laws*, on foreign grain imported into England. In this way, prices on foodstuffs were kept high, helping English landowners. As industrialism grew, the proportion of foodstuffs raised in England declined. The workers demanded an end to the *Corn Laws* because it would lower the price of bread; the factory owners wanted them repealed because they would be able to reduce wages if food costs were lower. Crop failures in 1845 led to the repeal of these laws the following year.

This was the opening move in a drive to abolish tariffs and adopt a policy of free trade. In 1860 England and France signed a free trade treaty.

England Is Forced to Adopt Tariffs. In the 20th Century England was forced to drop her free trade principles. In 1932 a high protective tariff was adopted and has been maintained ever since. At the same time England instituted a policy of *imperial preference*; that is, levying lower tariffs on goods imported from other members of the British Commonwealth.

3. The Government of England

Why We Study the British Government? It is important for Americans to study the British government because:

1. Many American political institutions and practices come from the British.
2. Britain is known as "the mother of parliaments," because it has served as a model for other governments.
3. The development of the British government gives us the best example of success through gradual, as opposed to revolutionary, methods in bringing about changes.

The British Constitution. Unlike the American Constitution, the

British constitution is not an all-written document. It does not give in detail the powers and responsibilities of the various branches of the government. Instead, it consists of two parts:

1. **The Written Portion.** This includes (a) charters such as the Magna Carta (1215), and the Petition of Rights (1628); (b) acts of Parliament dealing with government, such as the Reform Bill (1832) and the Lord's Veto Act (1911); and (c) judicial decisions such as the Taff Vale decision (1901)
2. **The Unwritten Portion.** This consists of established political customs and traditions. These, over the centuries, have come to have the effect of law. Among these are responsibility of the Cabinet to Parliament and the withering away of the royal veto power (not exercised since 1707)

Amending the British constitution is fairly simple. Parliament passes a new law, replacing the old law. The new law thus becomes part of the "constitution."

"The King Reigns But Does Not Rule." The royal powers have been given gradually to the cabinet and Parliament. Although all laws are signed by the king (or queen) and all officials are appointed in the ruler's name, the monarch is really a figurehead. The king or queen is merely a symbol of unity within the British Empire.

He opens sessions of Parliament, but his address to Parliament is written by the leader of the majority party. He appoints officials, but they are selected by the Prime Minister. He chooses the Prime Minister, but he must choose the leader who can hold a majority in the House of Commons.

The British Parliament — a Two-House Body. As we have seen, the British Parliament consists of two houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

1. **The House of Lords.** The upper House consists of about 800 members, most of whom inherit their titles and membership. Since the Lords lost much of their power under the Parliament Act of 1911, some members take their political duties lightly. Most of the work of the House is done by about 85 members. Titled women were admitted in 1958 to the House of Lords.
2. **The House of Commons.** This is the real ruling body of England. It consists of 630 elected members, each representing a district. All laws passed by Commons are automatically signed by the king. England, unlike the United States, does not have a Supreme Court with the power to rule on the constitutionality of acts of Parliament.

The Cabinet Is the Governing Agency. The cabinet directs the House of Commons. It is appointed by, and headed by a Prime

Minister who is generally the leader of the majority party of the lower House. All members of the cabinet (there are about 20) must be members of Parliament and usually members of the majority party, too. *Coalition governments* (cabinet members selected not just from one party) have been formed in wartime and emergencies.

The cabinet makes general policies, prepares important bills, guides their passage through Parliament and is responsible for their enforcement. Thus, the cabinet has executive and legislative functions in the government. Each cabinet member is the head of an executive department; for example, the Chancellor of the Exchequer is the head of the Treasury; the First Lord of the Admiralty is the head of the Navy.

The cabinet remains in power as long as it has the support of a majority of the Commons. If an important bill sponsored by the cabinet is defeated in Commons, or if the House passes a vote of "no confidence" in the government, the prime minister may do one of two things: (1) he and his cabinet may resign and suggest to the ruler that the leader of the opposition party form a cabinet, or (2) he may advise the ruler to dissolve Parliament and order new elections.

The second procedure, known as "going to the country," leaves it to the voters to decide the issue. If the voters return the same party to power, the prime minister remains in office. If the opposition party gains a majority, the old cabinet resigns. The ruler then appoints the leader of the new majority party as prime minister.

This "trigger government" (in the sense that it can go off at any time and require a new election) shows how the House of Commons controls the cabinet, and how the voters control the House.

Political Parties in England. For the last 300 years, until 1924, political power alternated between two major political parties. Their names have changed; in the 18th Century the Tories, representing the conservative landowners, competed with the Whigs, representing commercial interests. In the 19th Century the Tories became the Conservatives and the Whigs became the Liberals.

Early in the 20th Century there arose a new party which represented the working class. The Labor Party grew rapidly and took more and more votes from the Liberal Party. In 1924 and again in 1929, the Labor Party became the government of England, with Ramsay MacDonald as the first Labor Party Prime Minister. Today, England's two major parties are the Conservative and Labor parties.

The two major parties may be compared as follows: (1) the *Conservatives* are supported by the wealthy industrialists, large

landowners and upper class in general. They want to keep British rule over the Empire, and support a free enterprise capitalist state, keeping only a few social welfare measures. (2) The *Labor Party* is supported by trade unionists, liberals and much of the middle class. It calls for eventual establishment of a socialist state in England by democratic means.

Recent Political History in England. Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain failed at Munich to appease Hitler and the Nazis grew stronger and more demanding. Finally, in 1939 the Nazis invaded Poland and England entered the war. Serious English military defeats and discontent with Chamberlain's appeasement policy forced the Conservative Party to dismiss him. Winston Churchill then became the Prime Minister of a coalition (a combination of parties) war cabinet.

In 1945, in the first election in England in ten years, the Labor Party came to power. It faced problems of recovery at home and of failing British influence abroad. Labor Prime Minister Clement Attlee took steps to put England back on her feet. He increased taxes, made the people tighten their belts, reduced imports and increased exports. American aid also helped.

Moderate socialism was introduced; the Labor Party took control of banking, coal mines, steel, civil aviation and the railways. Wages were regulated, social legislation was broadened and a system of socialized medicine was begun.

The Labor Party gave up its mandate over Palestine. It made Burma completely independent and gave dominion status to India, Pakistan and Ceylon (see pages 332-334). The Labor Party supported the United Nations, cooperated with the United States, and joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

Labor's control in Parliament was sharply cut by the elections of 1950, although it remained in power for a year and a half more. The 1951 elections gave a slight majority to the Conservative Party and Winston Churchill again became Prime Minister. He stepped down in 1955 in favor of Sir Anthony Eden. In January, 1957, Eden resigned and Harold Macmillan became Prime Minister.

Under Conservative rule, some of the Labor reforms were eliminated. The steel and long-distance trucking industries were returned to their private owners. Socialized medicine was modified. National recovery continued. In 1956, the austerity (belt-tightening) program was ended.

In foreign relations, the Conservatives granted self-government to some of England's dependencies. They created a Central African Confederation (1953), granted dominion status to Ghana (the former Gold Coast), and to the Malay Federation in 1957.

England's prestige continued to fall in the Middle East. She was forced to withdraw her troops from the Suez Canal area and watched while President Nasser of Egypt took over the canal in 1956. Then in October, 1956, with France, she invaded the Suez area. The United Nations condemned this action and, in 1957, English and French troops withdrew. During the Jordanian crisis of 1958 English troops supported King Hussein.

COMPARISON OF BRITISH AND AMERICAN GOVERNMENTS

<i>British</i>	<i>United States</i>
Executive. Monarch—figurehead. Prime Minister—real head. Cabinet—must be members of Parliament and members of majority party. Veto by king not used since 1707. Executive part of legislature.	Executive. President elected to office for 4-year term (re-election limited). Cabinet appointed by President. Executive separate from legislature. Can check legislature by veto power.
Legislature. Parliament—2 houses: House of Commons (elected); House of Lords (hereditary). House of Commons—supreme power. No check on power except new elections by people.	Legislature. Congress—2 houses: Senate and House of Representatives. Both elected—both have equal power. Can check an executive—impeachment.
Judicial. Courts have no control over legislature. System of justice, trial by jury, etc., similar.	Judicial. Supreme Court checks on legislature—laws must be constitutional. Trial by jury, etc.
Constitution. No formal written document; easy to change—new law of Parliament erases old law.	Constitution. Written document; difficult system of amendments.

4. Political Changes in France

France During a Century and a Half of Changes. Of all the major governments in Europe, that of France has had the most basic changes. It has swung like a pendulum from absolutism to republicanism, then back to absolutism, and again to republicanism and democracy (see pages 152-155).

Type of Government		Date
Absolute monarchy	The Old Regime, under Bourbon rule.	Before 1789
Limited monarchy	The beginnings of the French Revolution, under Bourbon rule.	1789-1791
Limited republic	The First French Republic (the Convention, the Directory, the Consulate).	1792-1804
Absolute empire	First French Empire of Napoleon I.	1804-1814

Limited monarchy	Restoration of Bourbon rule (Louis XVIII, Charles X); Revolution of 1830 brings Louis Philippe to throne.	1814-1848
Republic	Second French Republic.	1848-1852
Absolute monarchy	Second French Empire under Napoleon III.	1852-1870
Democratic republic	Third French Republic.	1871-1940
Authoritarian control (Fascism)	Pétain and Laval set up Vichy Government under Nazis during World War II.	1940-1945
Democratic republic	Fourth French Republic.	1946-1958
Democratic republic	Fifth French Republic.	1958-

Restoration of the Bourbons (1814). At the Congress of Vienna Talleyrand won lenient treatment for defeated France. Louis XVIII was put back on the French throne and France lost all of the territories acquired since 1791.

Louis XVIII was careful not to do anything that might cause him to lose his throne. He granted a Charter to the French people in which he promised some political and social rights. Among these were freedom of speech and press and a legislature—elected by a minority of the people. (Only about 80,000 citizens paid the taxes that qualified them to vote.)

Since Louis governed constitutionally, most of the French people were content under his rule. However, many of the former nobles and clergy wanted to bring back all of the Old Regime.

Reign of Charles X (1824-1830). When Louis' younger brother succeeded to the throne as Charles X in 1824, the clergy regained much of their former power. The nobles were repaid for the loss of their property during the French Revolution. Civil rights, such as freedom of speech and the press, were suspended.

The July Revolution of 1830. Anger against Charles grew. When he issued the "July Ordinances" (weakening the civil and political liberties of the people), a revolt broke out in Paris. The working class supported the bourgeoisie and Charles fled to England.

Louis Philippe Becomes the "Citizen King." The Marquis de Lafayette persuaded the French to accept Louis Philippe, the Duke of Orleans, as their ruler. The new king promised to respect the constitution and French liberties.

Louis Philippe posed as a democratic ruler. He walked the streets of Paris without a bodyguard, sent his sons to public schools, shook hands with his subjects and liked to be called the "citizen

king." Actually, the government of France was controlled by the upper middle class.

Opposition to Louis Philippe began to grow. The workers found their wages smaller and working conditions worse as laws were passed making unions and strikes illegal. Other groups of the right and left also disapproved of him. The growth of a Republican party added to his opponents.

The Revolution of 1848. As opposition increased Louis Philippe became more tyrannical. Public meetings were prohibited, editors of opposition newspapers were jailed or exiled, and criticism of the king was forbidden. When the workers of Paris revolted in February, 1848, Louis Philippe fled to England.

The Second French Republic (1848-1852). The leaders of the revolt set up a republic. The constitution of the Second French Republic was very liberal. It proclaimed universal manhood suffrage, guaranteed freedom of speech and assembly and provided for a parliament with a responsible ministry.

Some radicals wanted to establish a socialist republic. Their leader, Louis Blanc, wanted the government to establish a system of *national workshops* in which the workers would have jobs and would share in the profits. To appease the workers the government set up a national workshop program for the thousands of unemployed. But so much money was wasted on unnecessary jobs that the program was abolished.

The workers objected and violent street fighting broke out in Paris. The *Terrible June Days* which followed took the lives of thousands, mostly workers, and the army put down the revolt.

The voters elected Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, nephew of the great Napoleon, as president of the Second Republic. For three years, Louis Napoleon held the support of the various groups in France. Then, in December, 1851, he executed a *coup d'état*, dissolved the legislature and arrested his opponents. He got the voters, through a plebiscite, to approve the changes and then to change the Republic into an Empire with himself as Emperor.

The Second French Empire (1852-1870). France, under Napoleon III, as Louis called himself, had a liberal constitution. The growth of the Industrial Revolution increased the wealth of the middle class. The workers were permitted to join unions, strikes were legalized and a public works program provided many jobs. French Catholics were pleased by the support given to the Pope by Napoleon III in protecting Rome from the new Italian government.

French imperialists swelled with pride when the French acquired Nice and Savoy from Sardinia (1859). They gloried in the French and English defeat of Russia in the Crimean War (1854-56), in the conquest of Algeria and the penetration of Indo-China.

Downfall of the Second Empire. Opposition helped to ruin the Empire. Many Catholics blamed Napoleon III for the loss of the Pope's power in the Italian peninsula, as the unification movement there began to develop (see page 282).

The Maximilian affair hurt French pride. In 1862, during the American Civil War, the French Army invaded Mexico (in violation of the Monroe Doctrine) and Napoleon III placed Archduke Maximilian of Austria on the throne. In 1867 the Americans forced him to withdraw his troops. This led to the collapse of the Maximilian government and the capture and execution of Maximilian by the Mexicans.

The growth of German power following the defeat of Austria by Prussia in 1866 caused Frenchmen to question Napoleon III's foreign policy. To win back his prestige, Napoleon plunged into a reckless war against Prussia (see page 286).

The Franco-Prussian War (1870-71) resulted in a quick defeat for the French. Napoleon III was captured at the Battle of Sedan (1870), was forced to give up his throne and was exiled to England.

Two days later the Parisians revolted, set up the temporary Third Republic and voted to continue the war. Louis Gambetta led the fight, but when Paris itself was besieged by the Germans, he was forced to surrender. By the *Treaty of Frankfurt* (1871) France ceded Alsace and a part of Lorraine to the new German Empire. She agreed to pay the Germans a billion dollars and to support a German army of occupation until payment was made.

The Third French Republic Is Formed. Adolphe Thiers was selected as the head of the temporary National Assembly in 1871. He negotiated the peace treaty and made sure that the money was quickly paid to the Germans. He put down the revolt of the Paris Commune, which favored the creation of a socialist republic.

The National Assembly was controlled by royalist delegates who wanted a monarchy. They could not agree, however, upon the choice—Bourbon or Orleanist. For four years these groups could not reach a decision. Finally, in 1875, the *Organic Laws* were passed. These became the constitution of the Third French Republic.

The Government of France—1875-1940. This constitution provided for (1) a president, to be elected to a seven-year term by the legislature; (2) a legislature (the National Assembly), the upper house or Senate to be elected by electors chosen by the people in the various departments, and the lower House, or Chamber of Deputies, to be elected by universal manhood suffrage. Senators had a nine-year term; deputies had a four-year term. The deputies had the power to introduce and pass all bills, with some check by the Senate. Executive power rested with the Cabinet, the head of

which was named by the President. The Premier and his Cabinet kept their positions as long as the Premier held a majority in the Chamber of Deputies. The French system of government was more like that of England than like the United States system.

The Bloc System in France. One of the most serious weaknesses of the French government is that its political life is so short. During the Third Republic the average life of a French cabinet was about six months. The reason for this political instability is due to the fact that there are so many parties. This has prevented any one political party from holding a majority of the seats in the lower house.

Every cabinet had to depend upon the support of a coalition, or bloc, of several parties in the legislature. If one party represented in this bloc disagreed with the other parties it would withdraw its support, leaving the cabinet without a majority and forcing it to resign. Then a new cabinet, formed out of a new coalition, would have to be formed. Very often the same names would appear in these various cabinets, for almost the same parties would have to be represented in the bloc. This has tended to weaken the French government, particularly in critical times

Chief Events of the Third Republic

1. Efforts to Undermine the Republic

- a. **The Boulanger Affair.** The clergy and royalist groups, hoping to bring back a monarchy, supported popular General Boulanger (boo-lahn-zhay') usually called "the man on horseback" because he appeared mounted before the French crowds. They hoped he would use his troops to overthrow the Republic. The threat was ended in 1889 when the government ordered Boulanger's arrest and trial for conspiracy. He fled to Belgium and later killed himself.
- b. **The Dreyfus Affair.** A more serious effort to overthrow the Republic was made in 1894. Alfred Dreyfus (dray'-fus), a Jewish army captain, was court-martialed and convicted of selling military secrets to the Germans.

Famous writers like Emile Zola and Anatole France led the fight to prove that Dreyfus had been falsely charged. Zola, in *J'accuse*, accused the army of trying to destroy the Republic. Finally, Dreyfus was proved innocent and released; the charge was part of a monarchist plot to discredit the Republic.

2. **Separation of Church and State.** In 1901, in an effort to curb the influence of the Church, the Associations Act was passed. This act required every religious order to get special authorization from the government to carry on its work. In 1904 the

government decreed that Church and State would be separated and that at the end of ten years no religious association would be permitted to maintain schools. The next year the Separation Act ended the Concordat of 1801 (page 184) and with it ended the state payment of salaries to the French clergy.

Education in France had been earlier reorganized and expanded by the Ferry Laws (1881-82), providing free compulsory elementary education.

3. **Foreign Policies.** Following 1870 the Republic found itself without major allies in Europe. In the 1890's this isolation was ended when France and Russia signed the *Dual Alliance*. In the next 10 years France drew closer to Great Britain, helping to form the Triple Entente (Russia, France, England) to offset the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy). French colonies were acquired in Tunisia, Morocco, Madagascar, Somaliland and other parts of Africa, and in Indo-China.
4. **France in World War I (1914-18).** French prestige was largely regained by her victory over Germany in World War I. Alsace-Lorraine was restored to France and the powerful German military forces broken up.
5. **France Between the Two World Wars.** World War I left France with serious economic and political problems. All these tended to weaken and divide the country.

Downfall of the Third French Republic—1940. France and England declared war on Germany when the Nazis invaded Poland in September, 1939. Eight months later, France, weakened by pro-Nazi collaborators, surrendered. The northern and western areas, including Paris, were occupied by the Nazis. The rest, or unoccupied France, was permitted to set up a government at Vichy under Marshal Henri Petain and Pierre Laval. This ended the Third Republic.

Petaín governed in absolute fashion with the help of the Nazis. The French underground resisted at home and a Free French Government was set up in London headed by General Charles de Gaulle.

The Fourth Republic—Problems and More Problems. After France had been freed from German occupation, a National Assembly was elected to draw up a new constitution. This was approved in 1946 and began to operate the following year. Here is an outline of the Fourth Republic's government:

1. The legislature consisted of two houses. The lower house, or National Assembly, had 627 members elected by universal suffrage

(women were permitted to vote) for a five-year term. The upper house, or Council of the Republic, consisted of 320 elected members. The Assembly was the more powerful body; the Council had only advisory and delaying powers.

2. The Cabinet was responsible for the introduction and passage of all important bills in the Assembly. It was headed by the Premier, who remained in office as long as his cabinet controlled a majority of Assembly votes.

3. The President was elected for a seven-year term by a joint session of the legislature. He could be elected to a second term. The President had little real power. The Premier (head of the cabinet) was the actual leader of the government.

To make government more stable, the Constitution provided that if the Assembly had brought about two cabinet crises within 18 months the President, upon the request of the Cabinet, could dissolve the Assembly and order new elections. This clause was used for the first time in 1955.

French Foreign Policies. Foreign policies of the Fourth Republic have included: (1) support of the United Nations; (2) membership in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization; (3) indirect approval of the rearmament of Germany; (4) granting independence to former French possessions such as Indo-China (1954) and Tunisia and Morocco (1956); (5) closer economic cooperation with her neighbors, through (a) the Schuman Plan for integration of coal and steel resources and markets, (b) the Euratom Plan to pool atomic energy research and development and, (c) the Euromarket program to eliminate tariffs gradually with five surrounding countries — Italy, West Germany, Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg.

French Internal Policies. In the first elections under the constitution, the Communist Party, at the extreme left, won many seats, as did the de Gaullists, on the extreme right. The center consisted of 173 Popular Republicans (really a Catholic Democratic party), 104 Socialists and 43 Radicals (not a leftist group, but opposed to socialism). These center groups formed a governing coalition, but they were united only in their opposition to both the de Gaullists and the Communists. They differed among themselves on social legislation and taxation measures. The result during the five-year term of this first Assembly was a string of cabinets, some lasting a few weeks, some lasting a year. Between 1946 and 1958, France had 26 different cabinets, with lives ranging from a week to 16 months.

In the 1951 elections, the rightist groups, particularly the de Gaullist group, won additional seats. For the next four and a half years France was again run by shortlived cabinets.



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FRENCH TOAST. This cartoon indicates the high rate of casualties suffered by French premiers since World War II. The frequency of change of premiers is one of the most important reasons for the unstable condition of the French government.

This Assembly was dissolved in 1955 and new elections were held in which gains were made by the leftist and rightist extremists.

Since 1950, France has made economic gains, aided by American loans. Industrial and agricultural production has increased; wages have gone up; the birthrate, despite the loss of young men in World War II, for the first time in more than 100 years, has increased to over 44,000,000. Along with these good signs there were some danger signals.

Inflation hit France badly. The value of the franc kept falling while prices rose. The rise in the cost of living caused much hard feeling among the workers, for their wages did not keep up with prices.

In May, 1958, the Algerian Moslems revolted for independence. French Army commanders seized control of Algeria and Corsica. They were dissatisfied because the French Premiers Gaillard and Pflimlin could not settle the thorny Algerian situation. This led to a period of crisis.

After a week of talks, Charles de Gaulle was asked by the President, Pierre Coty, to become Premier. De Gaulle forced the National Assembly to adopt a three-point program under which the new Premier tried to reform the state and prevent a civil war in France and in its colonies.

In the elections held in the fall of 1958, de Gaulle's new constitution for the Fifth Republic was accepted by 80% of French voters all over the world. The Communists lost heavily in this election.

Party	Old Assembly	New Assembly
Communists and allies	144	10
Socialists	91	40
Radicals	42	13
Independents, Peasants and other Conservatives	107	132
Gaullists	13	188
Paujadists	30	1
Popular Republicans and Christian Democrats	71	71
Other parties	42	22

Under the new constitution the President (de Gaulle) will have more power than presidents had under the Fourth Republic, and the Assembly will not be in a position to force cabinets to resign as easily or as frequently as before.

De Gaulle announced his plans in 1959 to integrate Algeria within the French government. Resistance still continues in that colony. Plans were announced in 1959 to revise the Napoleonic Code to give wives increased rights.

5. *Russia Remains Autocratic—1815-1914*

Geography Isolates Russia. After the Napoleonic Wars, Russia was the greatest nation in eastern Europe. The territories it had gained—Finland, Bessarabia, a large slice of Poland—enlarged an already great empire.

But in spite of her great size, Russia had certain limitations that weakened her outside as well as inside her borders. Her climate is continental in character, with long, bitterly cold winters and short hot summers. Over large areas the lack of rainfall cuts down crop production or prohibits it entirely.

Communications and transportation were inferior. Railroads connecting the large cities were not built until late in the 19th Century. Roads were mostly dirt tracks, bogged down during the spring thaws. While Russia's many rivers helped transportation, the long winters often choked them with ice. Access to western Europe by water routes was difficult because Russia had no open warm water ports. The great Volga River emptied into the Black Sea, but the port of Constantinople (now Istanbul) was controlled by the Turks. The sea route from the Baltic to Europe was icebound part of the year, and passed through Danish-controlled straits.

Geography, therefore, strengthened Russian isolation. At the same time it kept the forces of industrialism, democracy and nationalism from exerting much influence upon her.

Absolutism in Russia. The Romanov dynasty governed Russia in an autocratic fashion. The absolute rule of the Czar was strengthened by the support of these four groups:

1. *The Aristocratic Landlords.* Only one per cent of the population, they owned most of the land. They also ran the government and the army.
2. *The Civil Bureaucracy.* These servants of the state ran the machinery of government and owed absolute loyalty to the Czar. They were poorly paid, and thus robbed the public to add to their income. Bribery and corruption were common.
3. *The Army and the Police.* Nicholas I set up a secret police to help keep absolute rule. Spies were everywhere. Punishment meant imprisonment or Siberian exile. Cossack horsemen were used to put down riots.
4. *The Orthodox Church.* The Russian church (Greek Orthodox) taught obedience to the crown, preached submission to the status quo (things as they are) and reported on political suspects. The Patriarch (head) of the church was, in fact, appointed by the Czar.

Powers of the Czar. There was no legislature of any kind in Russia during the 19th Century. Thus, the people had no check upon the powers of the Czar. All laws were issued by him and enforced by his agencies; there was no constitution. Efforts to introduce reforms were stamped out.

Political History During the 19th Century. The chief events of Russian history during the 19th Century are as follows:

Czar	Chief Events
Alexander I (1801-1825)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creation of Holy Alliance. 2. Reaction against liberalism in closing years of reign (1820-25).
Nicholas I (1825-1855)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Failure of "Decembrist revolt" by liberal groups (1825) to put Constantine, an older brother, on the throne. 2. Creation of secret police. 3. Crushing of the Polish revolt for freedom (1830-31). 4. Crimean War (1854-56); Russian efforts to win Constantinople prevented by English and French support to Turkey.
Alexander II (1855-1881)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Abolition of serfdom (1861). 2. Other reforms adopted: provincial assemblies created with control over local affairs (1864); judicial system

**Alexander III
(1881-1894)**

- revised and trial by jury established (1866); schools established; newspapers given some freedom of expression.
- 3 Suppression of second Polish revolt (1863)
- 4 Russo-Turkish War (1877-78). Russia gained territory but was forced to give up its top position in the Balkans by the Congress of Berlin
- 5 Assassination of Czar (1881) by dissatisfied liberal groups.
- 1 Autocratic reaction with severe repression of all liberal thought.
- 2 Policy of Russification (forced nationalism) adopted: "one Faith, one Law, one Language, one Czar."
- 3 Pan-Slavism—uniting all Balkan peoples of Slavic origin, even non-Russians, under Russian rule.
- 4 Beginnings of industrialism.

**Nicholas II
(1894-1917)**

- 1 Continued growth of industrialism (1893-1903)
- 2 Defeat of Russia by Japan (1904-05).
- 3 Unsuccessful Revolution of 1905; creation of a legislature (Duma) and other reforms.
- 4 Gradual wiping out of many of these reforms (1907-1914).

Czar Alexander II Frees the Serfs. One of the most important changes in Russia during the 19th Century was the abolition of serfdom in 1861 by Czar Alexander II. The great majority of the Russians still lived and toiled on land owned by the aristocracy, who controlled their lives. The serfs harvested crops that were barely sufficient to keep them alive. Their lives were hard and dull, and few could read.

When serfdom was abolished, the government bought land from the nobles. This land was turned over to the village community (*mir*) to be divided among the families in the community.

This emancipation act did not solve the peasants' problems. (1) Between 1860 and 1900 the great increase in the peasant population created a tremendous "land hunger." (2) The nobles, who had sold about half of their holdings still held large tracts of very fertile soil. (3) The peasants had to repay the government through the *mir* for the cost of the poorer land bought from the nobles. (4) The land was owned not by individual peasants but by the *mir* which divided it. (5) As the population increased, the amount of land available for each household decreased.

Poor methods of farming, plus the decline in individual peasant holdings, made it more and more difficult for the peasant to pay

his dues to the *mir*—which, in turn had to pay the government for the land it had bought. Finally, in 1906, the government wiped out the peasants' debts.

How Revolutionary Movements Grew (1860-1905). The reforms of Alexander II did not go far enough. The intellectuals, through their readings and studies of western political and social theories, were led to demand broader changes. The *nihilists* wanted to rebuild Russia from the ground up. When they failed, *anarchists* and terrorists turned to violence. In 1881, the Czar himself was killed by a bomb.

Industrialism in Russia grew rapidly after 1870. Production of textiles, heavy machinery, iron and steel increased greatly. Railroad construction expanded internal trade. The Russians completed the Trans-Siberian railroad (1905), spanning the 6000 miles between Moscow and Vladivostok on the Pacific Coast. By 1914 more than 3,000,000 people worked in the factories, and another 2,000,000 in the mines and on the railroads.

However, working conditions were bad. Long hours, low wages, strict discipline in factories, bad housing—these meant misery and poverty for the workers. The workers were ripe for revolutionary ideas.

In the 1890's a group which included Plekhanov and Lenin founded the Marxist *Social Democratic Party*. It favored a revolution led by the working classes to bring about a socialist state. Another group, known as the *Social Revolutionaries*, also was formed about this time. They said the peasants were the backbone of Russia and, therefore, wanted to improve peasant life. These groups worked secretly, for the Czar's agents and spies were everywhere.

The Revolution of 1905. The defeat of Russia by Japan (1904-05) and the evidences of government corruption and stupidity, led to



LENIN—LEADER OF A REVOLUTION. When World War I ended and the czars were overthrown, Lenin organized the Communists. In November 1917, Lenin seized government buildings, arrested the heads of government and ruled Russia. His first move was to withdraw Russia from the side of the Allies.

demands for reforms. In January, 1905, on *Bloody or Red Sunday*, unarmed workers, led by a priest, Father Gapon, paraded peacefully to the Czar's palace. They carried petitions asking for reforms and were fired on by the Czar's troops. Hundreds were killed and thousands were wounded.

This touched off a wave of strikes, riots, uprisings and even a mutiny. A frightened Nicholas II promised (1) a constitution, (2) civil liberties and, (3) a legislature (Duma), with power to pass laws; the Duma was to be elected by all classes.

Some of the revolutionary groups were satisfied and others were not. When the revolution continued, the Czar put it down with great cruelty. Its leaders fled abroad, went underground or were caught, shot, or exiled to Siberia.

Democracy had failed because the revolutionary groups could not agree and the people were not ready for it.

DEMOCRACY IN OTHER PARTS OF EUROPE

Country	Status of Democracy (1914)
1 Germany	German emperor had chief power. Two-house legislature: <i>Bundesrat</i> , representing hereditary rulers of the states, and <i>Reichstag</i> , elected by universal manhood suffrage, but subordinate to <i>Bundesrat</i> and emperor. Bismarck's fight against Catholicism (<i>Kulturkampf</i> , 1873-78) failed. His efforts to prevent the growth of socialism were more successful. (See page 288.) Democracy was still weak in Germany in 1914.
2. Italy	Limited monarchy like England's. The upper house of the legislature was hereditary, the lower elected by limited suffrage. A cabinet held executive power. Democracy in Italy was weak because of the limited suffrage, high rate of illiteracy, the ownership of the land by a few rich families and the general poverty of the country.
3. Balkan Countries	In the Austro-Hungarian Empire each of the partners—Austria and Hungary—had its own legislature and ministers. They were joined together by one ruler, tariff, foreign policy, army and financial policy. Civil rights were limited, more severely in Hungary than in Austria. Suffrage was limited. Similar faults were found in the various Balkan countries (Greece, Rumania, Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria). Legislatures were elected by restricted suffrage; illiteracy was high; there was much poverty.
4. Spain, Portugal	Spain and Portugal were also faced with illiteracy, poverty, indifference to politics, limited suffrage. Revolts

5. Scandinavian Countries

in both countries brought changes: in Spain a revolution in 1868 led to a shortlived republic (1873-75.) Portugal's revolution of 1910 created a republican system of government and brought about the separation of church and state. However, neither country won lasting reforms.

After Norway and Sweden were separated in 1905, universal suffrage and the ending of the royal veto power made Norway a limited democratic monarchy. In Sweden, universal manhood suffrage, the democratization of the legislature and the adoption of social legislation strengthened democracy. Denmark granted suffrage to all men and most women; held popular elections of both legislative houses and created a ministry responsible to the legislature.



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. What was the principal method by which political democracy in England was achieved? (a) cabinet decree, (b) legislation, (c) war, (d) plebiscite. 1. _____
2. When did Great Britain extend to women the right to vote on the same terms as men? (a) shortly after the French Revolution, (b) just before the first World War, (c) shortly after the first World War, (d) shortly after the second World War. 2. _____
3. Which of the following pairs of countries most nearly achieved political democracy in the 19th Century? (a) Italy and Germany, (b) France and England, (c) Germany and France, (d) Italy and England. 3. _____
4. The British Constitution is (a) based on Magna Carta, (b) based on unwritten law, (c) composed of written documents and traditions, (d) limited to the common law. 4. _____
5. Changes of ministry have occurred frequently in France because (a) the premier finds it difficult to keep the support of a coalition of parties, (b) the premier is appointed by and is responsible to the president, (c) the premier's office is limited to one year, (d) the French are reluctant to revise the Constitution of 1791. 5. _____
6. Which one of the following is a 20th Century democratic reform in Great Britain? (a) removal of property qualifications for voting, (b) secret ballots, (c) woman suffrage, (d) free party membership. 6. _____
7. Persons attempting to secure democratic political reforms in England during the 19th Century were called (a) Laborites, (b) Char-
tists, (c) Puritans, (d) Cavaliers. 7. _____
8. All of the following are characteristics of a democracy *except* (a) majority rule and respect for minority rights, (b) existence of man

- for the state, (c) responsible citizenship, (d) government of, by and for the people. 8. _____
9. Members of the British Cabinet are usually (a) appointed by the House of Lords, (b) chosen directly by the Queen, (c) elected directly to the cabinet by the people, (d) selected from the majority party in Parliament. 9. _____
10. Which one of the following British reforms occurred first? (a) abolition of slavery, (b) adoption of woman suffrage, (c) education at public expense, (d) government ownership of coal mines. 10. _____
11. A nation that has a democratic form of government is (a) Spain, (b) Soviet Russia, (c) Czechoslovakia, (d) The Netherlands. 11. _____
12. Which legislative body had the greatest political power before World War I? (a) Chamber of Deputies (France), (b) Duma (Russia), (c) Parliament (England), (d) Reichstag (Germany). 12. _____
13. In England the Reform Bill of 1867 did for the city worker what the Reform Bill of 1832 did for (a) the middle class, (b) women, (c) agricultural workers, (d) the nobility. 13. _____
14. In order for the English Prime Minister and his cabinet to stay in office, they must have the support of a majority in the (a) House of Lords, (b) House of Commons, (c) Labor Party membership, (d) House of Commons and the House of Lords. 14. _____
15. During the 19th Century which country was a pioneer in the adoption of social insurance legislation? (a) France, (b) Germany, (c) Sweden, (d) Switzerland. 15. _____
16. Which document established the supremacy of the British Parliament? (a) Magna Carta, (b) Bill of Rights of 1689, (c) Parliament Act of 1911, (d) Statute of Westminster. 16. _____
17. Before 1914 the Chancellor of the German Empire was responsible to the (a) people, (b) Reichstag, (c) Bundesrat, (d) Kaiser. 17. _____
18. The empire of Napoleon III ended as a result of the (a) Congress of Vienna, (b) Revolution of 1830, (c) Crimean War, (d) Franco-Prussian War. 18. _____
19. Which was true of France between World War I and World War II? (a) Parliamentary government was replaced by dictatorship, (b) small farms were consolidated into large estates, (c) a system of alliances against Germany was developed, (d) the French overseas empire dwindled. 19. _____
20. Which was characteristic of the Russian government before 1900? (a) separation of church and state, (b) absolute rule by the czar, (c) a responsible cabinet system, (d) a legislature of two houses. 20. _____
21. Which event occurred during the Fourth Republic in France? (a) loss of Alsace-Lorraine, (b) codification of the law, (c) loss of her colonial empire, (d) granting of suffrage to women. 21. _____
22. Which are the two major political parties in Great Britain today?

- (a) Conservative and Labor, (b) Liberal and Conservative, (c) Tory and Whig, (d) none of these. 22.
23. That country may be said to be most democratic which (a) can boast that it has a constitution, (b) has majority rule but also provides for rights of minorities, (c) can prove it is strong and efficient, (d) holds elections often. 23.
24. The House of Lords has the power to (a) veto laws of Commons, (b) hold up budgets and other laws for one year, (c) hold up laws but not budgets for one year, (d) hold up budgets for one year. 24.
25. French governments have tended to be less stable than English governments because (a) France has a large Communist party, (b) Frenchmen are more excitable, (c) France fears the revival of German military might, (d) France has many parties. 25.
26. "Going to the country" (a) is a method of making a revolution in Italy, (b) refers to British elections after Parliament has been dissolved, (c) refers to the habits of the German Kaiser, (d) has weakened French democracy. 26.
27. Among the undemocratic features of the English government of 1800 was the (a) hereditary position of the English ruler, (b) the selection of the prime minister by the king, (c) the vetoing of many laws by the king, (d) religious qualifications for members of Parliament. 27.
28. Which of the following statements describe Italy between 1870-1914? (a) there was universal suffrage, (b) most people could read and write, (c) standards of living were high, (d) a responsible cabinet exercised executive power. 28.
29. Which of the following statements is *not* true of 19th Century Russia? (a) the people were generally well satisfied, (b) the nobles enjoyed many privileges, (c) the Czar was an absolute ruler, (d) most of the people belonged to the Greek Orthodox Church. 29.
30. The Dreyfus Affair in France (a) led to Napoleon's downfall, (b) resulted in a scandal involving the Suez Canal, (c) led to the passage of the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, (d) was part of a monarchist plot to discredit the Republic. 30.
31. A country that had the same type of government in 1920 that it had in 1815 was (a) France, (b) Germany, (c) Great Britain, (d) Russia. 31.
32. Which of the following statesmen is *not* correctly associated with the reform he sponsored? (a) Lord Russell - vote for the middle class, (b) Disraeli - vote for the city workers, (c) Lloyd George - vote for farmers, (d) Baldwin - vote for women over 21. 32.
33. The Reform Bill of 1832 (a) redistributed seats in Parliament by abolishing many "rotten boroughs", (b) limited the power of the House of Lords, (c) permitted Catholics and Jews to sit in Parliament, (d) provided for a system of social insurance. 33.
34. About the same time that slavery was abolished in the United States (a) France became a republic, (b) Russia abolished serfdom, (c) Metternich was forced out of Austria, (d) England became a limited monarchy. 34.

- 35 Napoleon III followed in the footsteps of his uncle Napoleon I in all of the following ways *except* (a) seizing power by a coup d'état, (b) beautifying Paris, (c) being a great military conqueror, (d) adding territory to France. 35.

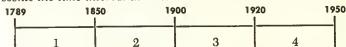
COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. The "leap in the dark" of 1867 refers to the English extension of the vote to the
2. The Revolution of 1848 in Europe was reflected by the agitation of the in England.
3. The great Liberal Party leader of the last quarter of the 19th Century in England was
4. The House of Lords may hold up a budget bill for a period of
5. The Act of 1918 required compulsory school attendance of children to the age of 14 in England.
6. The repeal of the in 1846 abolished English tariffs on foreign grain.
7. Cabinet members in England are appointed by the
8. The legislature in Imperial Russia was called a
9. During the period of control by the Party after 1945, socialized medicine was adopted in England.
10. By the French Revolution of 1830, became king.
11. The "....." refers to the bloody suppression of the workers in the French Revolution of 1848.
12. Napoleon III gained from Sardinia in 1859.
13. During World War II the capital of unoccupied France was
14. Czar established a secret police in Russia to suppress revolutionary ideas.

TIME CHRONOLOGY TEST

On the following line the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 represent time intervals. Write on the line at the left of each event listed below the number that represents the time interval in which the event occurred.



- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>..... a. First French Republic</p> <p>..... b. universal suffrage in England</p> <p>..... c. Napoleon III of France</p> <p>..... d. women in France given the vote</p> <p>..... e. Lords' Veto Bill adopted in England</p> <p>..... f. Third French Republic established</p> | <p>..... g. middle class given the vote in England</p> <p>..... h. separation of Church and State in France</p> <p>..... i. abolition of serfdom in Russia</p> <p>..... j. granting of a Duma in Russia</p> |
|---|---|

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.



I

- 1. Neville Chamberlain
- 2. Henri Petain
- 3. Winston Churchill
- 4. Lloyd George
- 5. Napoleon III
- 6. Ramsay MacDonald
- 7. Clement Attlee
- 8. Louis Gambetta
- 9. Adolphe Thiers
- 10. Georges Boulanger
- 11. Jules Ferry
- 12. Alfred Dreyfus
- 13. Father Gapon
- 14. Earl Gray

II

- a. English austerity program
- b. leader of the French Republic in 1870
- c. French officer wrongly accused of treason
- d. first British Labor Party Prime Minister
- e. French "man on horseback"
- f. first President of Third French Republic
- g. "Bloody Sunday" (1905)
- h. extended vote to middle class in Britain
- i. "Maximilian Affair"
- j. French education laws
- k. adoption of Social Security program in England
- l. Vichy French leader
- m. appeasement of Hitler at Munich
- n. head of English coalition government in World War II
- o. English reactionary leader after 1815

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Explain the importance of each of the following in the growth of English democracy: (a) the cabinet system; (b) the Chartist movement; (c) the Reform Bill of 1832; (d) the Parliament Act of 1911.

2. Show two ways in which each of three of the following has either helped or hindered democracy: (a) British suffrage laws since 1830; (b) French Revolution of 1789; (c) cooperative movement in the Scandinavian countries; (d) Bolshevik Revolution of 1917; (e) United States military aid to Europe since World War II.

3. Describe the role of three of the following in the British system of government: (a) the monarch; (b) the cabinet; (c) the House of Commons; (d) the House of Lords.

4. Show specifically how each of four of the following statesmen helped either to promote or hinder the growth of democracy: (a) Oliver Cromwell; (b) Napoleon Bonaparte; (c) Prince Metternich; (d) Otto von Bismarck; (e) Lloyd George; (f) Benjamin Disraeli.

5. Explain two ways in which the English government of today differs from the French government.

6. Give specific facts to show that the development of democracy in Great Britain was a gradual process.

7. For each of three of the following areas show an important difference between the practices of Great Britain and the practices of the United States: (a) responsibility of the cabinet, (b) relation of government to medical care, (c) relation of church to the state, (d) control of radio and television, (e) selection of the chief executive.

8. (a) Account for the decline in power of the English House of Lords during the 19th Century. (b) What additions to the Parliament Act of 1911 have further limited the Lords' influence?

9. Compare the careers of Napoleon III with Napoleon I as to (a) methods of gaining control, (b) methods of remaining in control, (c) military successes, (d) reasons for downfall.

10. (a) How do you explain the great number of political parties in France? (b) What changes in the government of France were made by the Fourth Republic? (c) What improvements were made by the Fifth Republic?

11. Show how each of the following affected the relations between church and state in France: (a) the Civil Constitution of the clergy, (b) the Concordat, (c) the Separation Act of 1905.

12. Compare the Russian czars of the 19th Century as to (a) attitude toward liberalism, (b) accomplishments, (c) outcomes.

13. Compare the Old Regime in France with Russia before 1914.

14. (a) Why were the serfs dissatisfied with their emancipation in 1861? (b) How did this contribute to the growth of revolutionary movements in Russia?

15. With regard to the Revolution of 1905 in Russia, describe its (a) causes, (b) progress, (c) results.

18 Nationalism Grows Rapidly

1. *Nationalism as a Factor in World History*

The Language of Nationalism. Many 19th-Century authors insisted that just as a person has an inalienable (cannot be surrendered or transferred) right to freedom, so did each nationality have a natural right to a separate political life. The nationalist movement did more to change the map of the world than any other single force.

Nationalism is an emotion or feeling of intense loyalty of a group of people to their state. These loyalties may be based on geographical boundaries, one religion, same language, common customs and traditions.

A *nationality* is a group of people who have such a common heritage. A *national state* is an independent country consisting of such a nationality. *Patriotism* means devotion to the welfare of one's country. *Chauvinism* and *jingoisism* are extreme nationalism for unreasonable glory, especially of the sort fed by military deeds.

How the French Revolution Influenced Nationalism. After 1789 nationalism took on a more popular, democratic quality. Feelings of loyalty were transferred from the king himself to the nation as a whole. People felt they had a share in the nation; they felt that all able-bodied men—not just hired or professional soldiers—should fight their country's battles.

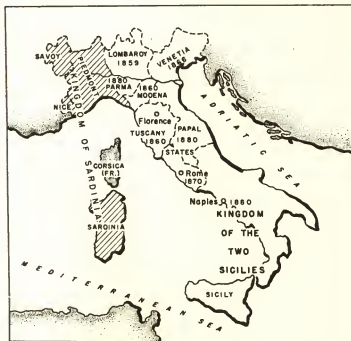
France applied this nation-in-arms principle; Napoleon made much use of it; Prussia perfected it, and other countries imitated the Prussian example. A national flag, a national anthem, a national holiday, a national army became symbols of national sovereignty.

Forms of Nationalist Expression. Nationalism expressed itself in a variety of ways. It led to:

- 1 *Changing the Map of the World.* As people came under the influence of nationalist ideas, those who were not free from foreign rule sought and fought for their freedom. Since 1945, 25 new countries have come into existence.
- 2 *The Development of Militarism.* As the nation-in-arms became more common, the building up of armed forces became an important expression of nationalism.

3. *Frequent Wars.* Force was the usual method by which a nation won its freedom or, after gaining it, sought to increase its power.
4. *Imperialistic Adventures.* Winning control of and exploiting undeveloped areas of the world was part of the role of a great power. This became a dominant motive for countries which gained nationhood fairly late—like Germany and Italy.
5. *Economic Nationalism.* The new national states tried to become self-sufficient. This meant placing tariffs on foreign goods to stimulate domestic production and having colonies serve as sources for raw materials or markets for finished products.

How Nationalism Is Kept Alive. An important force in helping nationalism grow was the state-controlled school system. (That is why many struggles took place on the issue of state-versus-church control of schools.) Studies in geography, history, art and scientific achievement promote feelings of pride. Singing of



UNIFICATION OF ITALY. The first step toward unification of Italy came from the United Kingdom of Sardinia. Gradually, under the leadership of various patriots, the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, with Victor Emmanuel II as king.

national anthems, ceremonies on national holidays, birthdays of heroes, even prowess in baseball and other sports increase national pride.

Newspapers and magazines, along with the stage and pulpit—and more recently radio and television—help to spread nationalism.

2. *The Unification of Italy Through Nationalism*

Italy—a “Geographical Expression.” Italian hopes in 1815 for the creation of a united Italy were smashed by the Congress of Vienna. The Italian peninsula, once the center of the great Roman empire, was divided by the Congress into eight states. The strongest and only one not under Austrian control was the kingdom of Sardinia, which included Savoy and Piedmont and the island of Sardinia. Sardinia became the leader of unification. In addition there were two provinces—Lombardy and Venetia—annexed to Austria; three duchies—Parma, Modena and Tuscany—governed by Austrian rulers; the kingdom of the two Sicilies (also called Naples), under Austrian protection, and the Papal states, including Rome, under the control of the Pope.

Roadblocks in the Path of Italian Unification

1. **Foreign opposition:** from Austria (for whom a united Italy would mean loss of territories and influence), and from France (who did not want a powerful neighbor).
2. **Opposition of the Austrian-supported rulers** of the petty states who wished to remain in power.
3. **Opposition of the Pope**, who would lose rule over Papal states.
4. **Differences among the nationalists** over the form of a united Italy: a democratic republic (favored by Mazzini); a constitutional monarchy under Sardinia (supported by Cavour); confederation under the Pope (sponsored by Gioberti).

Factors Favoring Unity

1. **Common cultural and historical traditions**, especially the ancient Roman empire and the glories of the Renaissance period.
2. **Common religion, geography and language.**

Early Efforts Toward Unification

1. **Carbonari revolts of 1820 and 1830 failed** because Austria stepped in.
2. **In 1848 revolts in Italian states succeeded for a time**, but finally ended in failure as Austrian armies crushed Sardinia and put down other revolts.

Leaders in the Fight for Unification

1. **Mazzini** (mott-see'-nee), "the heart of Italian unification," founded the nationalistic *Young Italy Society* in 1831 and awakened in the Italian people a desire for unification.
2. **Cavour** (ka-voor'), the "brains" of unification. As Prime Minister of Sardinia he promoted the Industrial Revolution, built up the army and got French help in pushing out the Austrians.
3. **Garibaldi** (gar-ih-bahl'-dee), "the sword," led an army of 1000 *Red Shirts*, conquered the two Sicilies and offered that kingdom to Sardinia (1860).



PATRIOTS WHO HELPED BRING ABOUT UNIFICATION OF ITALY. Mazzini tried to establish a republican form of government, and was driven out of Italy; Cavour, with the aid of Napoleon, incorporated many states into the Kingdom of Sardinia, and Garibaldi, leader of the "Red Shirts," furthered the unification of Italy.

Wars to Win Unification

1. **Austro-Sardinian War (1859).** In return for the promise of Nice and Savoy, Napoleon III of France helped Sardinia in this war, out of which Sardinia gained Lombardy.
2. **Revolts in Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna** (part of the Papal states) overthrew the rulers in 1860. The people voted to join Sardinia.
3. **Conquest of the Two Sicilies by Garibaldi in 1860.** The Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed (1861) with Turin as its capital, for Rome was in the hands of the Pope and protected by French troops.
4. **Austro-Prussian War (1866).** Italy allied herself with Prussia and gained Venetia as a result.
5. **Franco-Prussian War (1870).** French troops were withdrawn from Rome when this war broke out, and Rome became the capital of a now unified Italy.

6. *World War I (1914-18)*. Italy gained the parts of Italy still under Austrian rule, called "Unredeemed Italy" or *Italia Irredenta*. This included Trentino, Istria, Gorizia, Trieste and Fiume.

A United Italy Faces Many Problems. The new kingdom of Italy of 1861 became a constitutional monarchy, with a legislature elected by limited male suffrage. (In 1912 the vote was extended to all adult men.) The problem of educating the Italian masses, especially in the south, limited the creation of a sound democracy.

In addition, Italy lost the support of the Papacy and of many loyal Catholics following the seizure of Rome in 1870. In 1905 the Papacy withdrew the ban on cooperation with the Italian government.

Italy was held back as a great industrial nation by the lack of coal, iron and oil. With the development of hydroelectric (water) power, factories began to spring up in the northern part of the country. The rest of the country was mainly agricultural. Poverty and high taxes caused Italians to migrate, particularly to the United States.

In foreign affairs, Italy tried to win Tunisia and failed. Her attempts to conquer Abyssinia in 1896 also failed. However, she did gain Eritrea, Italian Somaliland and Tripoli in Africa.

3. Steps Leading to the Unification of Germany

Roadblocks in the Way

1. *Opposition of the many petty rulers*, each of whom feared the loss of power.
2. *Differences in religion* between the Catholic south and the Protestant north.
3. *Jealousy and fear of Prussia*, the largest state.
4. *Rivalry between Austria and Prussia*—both competed to control smaller German states.
5. *Foreign opposition from France* (which did not want a large and powerful neighbor)

Factors Favoring Unification

1. *Common language, history and cultural traditions*, awakened and stimulated by the writings of Fichte, Herder, Hegel and others.
2. *The Industrial Revolution*, with roads, railroads and growing trade all uniting the German states.

Early Efforts Toward Unification

1. *Napoleon helped unification* by (a) destroying the Holy Roman Empire, (b) reducing the number of German states, (c) stimulating nationalism in Prussia after defeating it at Jena.

2. *The Congress of Vienna (1815) created a German Confederation* of 38 states, with Austria the leader and Prussia second.
3. *Formation of the Zollverein* (economic union) by Prussia and other German states (1833) established free trade among its members, thus creating an economic basis for union.
4. *The Frankfort Assembly (1848) tried to create a unified Germany* but failed because of Austrian opposition, differences among the German leaders, and Prussian unwillingness to lead a democratic movement.

Leaders in the Fight for Unification

1. *Otto von Bismarck* became chief minister of Prussia, built up the army and prepared Prussia for leadership. Through his "blood and iron" policy (willingness to use war and force) Bismarck became the chief architect of German unification.
2. *William I*, King of Prussia, who supported Bismarck and his policies.
3. *General H. von Moltke*, who planned and led the Prussian armies to victories in the wars that created a united Germany.



PRUSSIA IN 1866

THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION AND THE GERMAN EMPIRE. The area enclosed in the heavy black line shows the German Confederation formed by the Congress of Vienna; the broken line shows the boundary of the German empire.

Wars to Win Unification.

1. **The Danish War (1864).** In 1863 Denmark annexed the two duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, though they were part of the German Confederation. This led to a war in which Austria and Prussia defeated Denmark and took over the duchies.
2. **Austro-Prussian War (1866).** Bismarck brought about a war with Austria over the future of Schleswig-Holstein. He defeated Austria in the Seven Weeks' War, even though many of the smaller German states sided with Austria. The peace treaty was lenient: the German Confederation, which Austria led, was dissolved, and a *North German Confederation* created under the leadership of Prussia. Austria was forced to give Venetia to Italy, an ally of Prussia. However, the south German states refused to join the new Confederation.
3. **Franco-Prussian War (1870-71).** To get these south German states into a united Germany was the next step. These states—Bavaria, Wurttemberg, Baden and Hesse, mainly Catholic—feared Protestant Prussia. Only a war with a foreign nation would lead them into a union for mutual protection. Napoleon III was willing to go to war to save his throne. The result was a disaster for the French. The south German states joined with the other German states, the French armies were destroyed, Paris was besieged and taken. By the Treaty of Frankfort, Alsace-Lorraine was given to Prussia, and a billion dollars was paid to Germany. The German empire was created in January, 1871, with William of Prussia becoming Emperor William I. All German states except Austria were united into one nation.

The German Empire—Its Government. The German Empire became the leading power on the continent. Its government was constitutional in appearance, but in reality autocratic.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

Branch	Powers
Executive: German Emperor (Kaiser)	Commanded the armed forces and controlled foreign affairs. Could declare war with the consent of the Upper House of the legislature. Appointed one-third of the members of the Bundesrat and thus could control it. Appointed the Chancellor, who was responsible only to the Emperor. Could block any proposed change to the Constitution through his votes in the Bundesrat. Had great powers also as King of Prussia.

Legislative**Upper House
(Bundesrat)**

Represented hereditary rulers of the 26 states of the Empire. Prussia had one-third of the members in this house. All laws had to be approved by the Bundesrat. It was the more important body.

**Lower House
(Reichstag)**

Popularly elected by all adult males over 25, but had little powers except to debate the proposals of the Emperor introduced into the Upper House.

Bismarck, the "Iron Chancellor" (1871-1890). The most important statesman of the new empire was Otto von Bismarck. Under his iron hand Germany followed these policies:



OTTO VON BISMARCK—THE "IRON CHANCELLOR." Bismarck once said in a committee meeting that "the great questions of the day would be decided by blood and iron." Over a period of 30 years, Bismarck guided Germany through wars and through many reforms.

1. **Militarism.** The German army became the strongest in Europe. Conscription (a draft) was adopted, modern arms and equipment maintained. The German military played an important role in social and political life.
2. **Industrialism.** Industry in Germany was encouraged by government aid through tariffs (after 1879) and subsidies. Coal and iron production increased, steel manufacturing grew, the chemical industry became a world leader. Railroads were unified nationally. A national system of coinage was introduced. An imperial bank was organized. The German merchant marine began to rival England's.
3. **Foreign Relations.** The chief aim of Bismarck's foreign policy was to prevent a war of revenge by France. To isolate France a system of alliances was organized. Austria and Russia became members with Germany in the League of the Three Emperors (1873-78). When Austrian and Russian conflicts

over the Balkans became serious, Bismarck signed a Dual Alliance with Austria alone (1879), which became the Triple Alliance in 1881 when Italy joined. Bismarck negotiated a secret "Reinsurance Treaty" with Russia in 1887

4. **Imperialism** Bismarck was opposed to an imperialist program until the 1880's. However, on demands from German industrialists and nationalists, he began a program of overseas expansion. He seized territory in Africa and in the Pacific.

5. **Anti-Catholicism.** Catholics were opposed to many of Bismarck's policies. To weaken their influence, Bismarck put through laws in 1872 which expelled the Jesuits from the country. He also put Church training schools under the authority of the government, made civil marriages compulsory and transferred control of education to the state. But this struggle with the Catholic Church, called the *Kulturkampf* (or "battle for civilization"), strengthened the Catholic Center political party which increased its representation in the Reichstag. In 1878 Bismarck was forced to repeal most of these "May Laws."

6. **Conflict with Socialism.** The growth of industrialism in Germany had created a large working class. There was much discontent over poor working conditions and low wages. Socialist propaganda was making headway. To break up this growing influence, the German legislature adopted laws in 1878 and 1890 which banned socialist newspapers and socialist meetings. To persuade the workers to place their faith in him and the German Empire rather than in Marx and socialism, Bismarck adopted a program of social legislation in the 1880's which included sickness, accident and old age insurances. But in spite of this, the socialists grew in numbers and representation in the Reichstag.

7. **Germanization.** Against the non-German peoples in the Empire (the French in Alsace-Lorraine, the Poles in Silesia) Bismarck followed policies of Germanization. Only the German language was to be taught in the schools and the publication of books and newspapers in the native languages was limited.

Germany After Bismarck (1890-1914). Emperor William II forced Bismarck into retirement and increased German power and influence. He built a powerful army and a large navy, second only to Britain's. German industry continued to expand and Germany became a strong competitor of England in foreign trade.

German imperialism became tougher, challenging France in North Africa and England in the Balkans and the Near East by the construction of the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad. William II posed as the "friend of the Moslems" and his saber rattling (militaristic

threats) created uneasiness and suspicion of Germany throughout Europe.

4. Nationalism in the Austrian Empire

Nationalities That Made Up the Austrian Empire. The Austrian Empire was the most powerful state in central Europe after the Congress of Vienna. It governed a strange patchwork of peoples and nationalities.

Germans were the ruling national group in Austria. They ruled Czechs and Slovaks in Bohemia, Poles in Galicia, Magyars, Rumanians, Serbs and Croats in Hungary, Italians in northern Italy and Slovenes in the Adriatic provinces. After 1815 nationalist ideas spread among many of these peoples.

Creation of Austria-Hungary (1867). The Magyar (Hungarian) efforts to achieve independence from Austria had failed in 1848 in spite of the heroic leadership of Louis Kossuth (page 199). But Austria was weakened further by her defeats by Sardinia in 1859 and by Prussia in 1866. In 1867, under their leader, Francis Deak, the Hungarians arranged a compromise, known as the *Ausgleich*, by which the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary was created.

Under this agreement, Austria and Hungary were to have the same king, flag, army and navy. Each was to have its own Parliament and capital and run its own domestic affairs. Francis Joseph became Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary.

Nationalistic Ideas Are Not Tolerated. Neither the Austrian nor Hungarian rulers tolerated the spread of nationalistic ideas among their subject peoples.

The Hungarians in particular tried to enforce "Magyarization" of the Rumanians, Slovaks, Croats and Ruthenians. They required all non-Magyars to speak the Magyar language and permitted few non-Magyars the right to vote and hold office. The Austrians were more liberal in their treatment of the Poles, Czechs, Slovaks and Italians. They allowed some home rule to the Poles and promised it to others.

What Held the Empire Together? In spite of the many different nationalities within the Empire, the dual monarchy held together for 60 years. It ended only with the defeat of Austria-Hungary in World War I.

Among the factors that held the Empire together were the following: (1) Love for Emperor Francis Joseph, who ruled for 68 years (1848-1916). (2) The army, commanded by loyal aristocrats. (3) The Empire's good economic condition. (4) The bureaucracy, representing the various nationalities. (5) The Roman

Catholic Church—common religion. (6) The policy of “divide and conquer,” which kept the Slav minorities from agreeing among themselves on a program for revolt and freedom.

Nationalism Poses a Threat. The greatest danger to Austria-Hungary came from the neighboring states. The independent countries of Serbia and Rumania wanted their peoples under Austrian or Hungarian rule to join them. To achieve this goal, they campaigned to stir up their brothers in the Empire. In this they were helped by Russia, ambitious to extend its power and influence in the Balkans. If nationalism were to succeed, it would mean the end of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The Empire Comes to an End. This was what happened after World War I ended: the defeat of Austria-Hungary led to the breakup of the dual monarchy. Austria and Hungary were made separate independent states. Polish minorities in Austria were joined with the Poles of Germany and Russia to create the Republic of Poland. The Italian minority was joined with Italy. Bosnia and Herzegovina were joined with Serbia and Montenegro to form the new state of Yugoslavia. The Czechs and Slovaks were united to form Czechoslovakia. The Rumanians in Hungary were added to Rumania.

However, the breakup of Austria-Hungary posed problems. (1) New submerged nationalities were created: Rumania received Hungarians, the new Czechoslovakia contained Germans and Hungarians, and the ceded Italian areas contained Slavic peoples. (2) The economic unity of the old empire was broken up.

5. Nationalism in the Balkans

The Balkan Problem. The Balkan peninsula is a mountainous region in southeastern Europe surrounded by the Adriatic, Mediterranean and Aegean seas. This area was conquered by the Turks during the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries.

The history of the Balkans in the 19th and 20th centuries is the story of the fight of the many peoples living in the area to gain their freedom from Turkish rule. These efforts were held back by rivalries and jealousies among them and by the clash of interests of the great powers in that part of the world. This constant unrest made Turkey “the sick man of Europe.”

INTERESTS OF THE GREAT POWERS

Country	Interest in the Balkans
Russia	1. Wanted to play the part of “big brother” to the Balkan Slavs, who were related to the Russians by language, religion, and hatred of Turkey.

	2. Wanted the part of Constantinople as a "window to the west"; weakening Turkey would help to get it.
England	1. Opposed Russian ambitions toward Constantinople. 2. Protected Turkey as a defense of English control in the eastern Mediterranean (Suez) and in India.
Austria-Hungary	1. Rivalled Serbia for territory along the Adriatic. 2. Wanted to prevent Slavic nationalism from weakening control over her own Slavic peoples.
Germany	1. Desired to expand imperialistically through the growth of trade and the construction of the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad. 2. Supported her ally, Austria, against Russian schemes.
France	1. Passed as the defender of Balkan Catholics to win support of French Catholics for the government.

DECLINE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE (TURKEY)—(1815-1914).

Events	Results
Greek War for Independence (1829)	Helped by Russia, England and France (page 197), the Greeks won their independence from Turkey in 1829.
Crimean War (1853-56)	Russia, to secure Constantinople, attacked Turkey in 1853. The next year Turkey received support from France, Britain and Sardinia. Russia was defeated.
Russo-Turkish War (1877-78)	Following a Turkish massacre of about 10,000 rebel Bulgarians, Russia declared war on Turkey, defeated her and forced her to sign the Treaty of San Stefano. This gave Russia the top position in the Balkans through creation of a Greater Bulgaria as a Russian puppet. This treaty was denounced by England and Austria-Hungary.
Congress of Berlin (1878)	Russian dominance in the Balkans was prevented by this Congress, presided over by Bismarck. The treaty included: (1) Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania were given their independence; (2) Bulgaria was made an autonomous but not independent state; (3) Austria-Hungary was given the province of Bosnia-Herzegovina to govern; (4) England received Cyprus; (5) Russia was given Bessarabia.
Young Turk Revolution (1908)	Taking advantage of disorders in Turkey growing out of the revolt of young nationalists, Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia, and Bulgaria declared its independence from Turkey.
The Italo-Turkish War (1911-12)	Italy defeated Turkey and was given Libya, in northern Africa.

**The Balkan Wars
(1912-1913)**

The Balkan countries of Greece, Montenegro, Serbia and Bulgaria defeated Turkey and drove her out of Europe. Then they quarreled among themselves and a second war broke out in which Bulgaria was defeated. As a result, Austria insisted upon an independent Albania, thus blocking Serbian outlet to the sea again. Serbia and Montenegro gained territory in Macedonia, Rumania got same territory along the Black Sea and Greece received Salonika and Crete. Turkey was left with Constantinople and a small zone to the west.

6. Nationalism in Turkey

The Young Turk Revolution (1908). The loss of Turkish territory and the decline of Turkish influence in the Balkans led to a bloodless revolt by the *Young Turks*. This group wanted to create a constitutional monarchy modeled after those of western Europe. They forced the sultan to give them a constitution. But this was not a democratic revolution; the rebels were more nationalistic than liberal. Their efforts to Turkify subject peoples led to more riots and further cutting up of the Ottoman Empire.

A Strong Man Emerges — Mustafa Kemal. Turkey fought in World War I as an ally of Germany and lost additional territory. The peace treaty with the allies was disliked by Turkish nationalists. Led by Mustafa Kemal they fought the Greeks and won back territory in eastern Thrace and Smyrna. An exchange of peoples between Turkey and Greece removed the threat of future minority disputes between these countries.

Under Kemal a republic was set up and many western reforms were introduced. Turkey was now a purely Turkish state, having lost its Arabian and Balkan populations as a result of World War I.

7. Nationalism in Ireland

Origins of the Irish Problem. Over a period of hundreds of years, since the 12th Century, England had brought most of the Irish people under her control. English rulers had taken much land from the Irish and given it to English lords. Colonies of Scotch Protestants were settled in Northern Ireland, called Ulster today.

In 1801 the Irish Parliament at Dublin was abolished by an Act of Union which created the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Irish were given representation in the British Parliament, but this did not satisfy them. For the next century the Irish fought for their own Parliament or independence from Great Britain.

The Religious Problem in Ireland. Though most of the Irish were Catholics, and the English were Protestants, the Irish had to pay taxes to support the Anglican Church. Until 1829 only those Irishmen who belonged to the Anglican Protestant Church could become members of Parliament.

In 1829 Daniel O'Connell, an Irish Catholic, was elected to Parliament. The Irish threatened to revolt if he were barred. Parliament adopted the *Catholic Emancipation Act* which in 1829 permitted Catholics to sit in Parliament as well as hold public office.

In 1869 a *Disestablishment Act* was passed which provided that the Irish no longer were required to pay taxes for the support of the Anglican Church.

The Land Problem — Serious and Complicated. Most of the Irish peasants lived as tenants on farms owned by English landlords who lived in England (*absentee landlords*). Their rents were high, the land was poor and they always faced the danger of eviction if they complained too much. In 1845-47, the potato famine struck and many Irish emigrated to the United States and elsewhere.

In 1879 Charles Parnell organized a Land League to fight for "fair rent, fixed holdings and freedom of land sale."

With the support of Prime Minister Gladstone, Parliament passed land acts in 1881 which provided that (1) rents were to be regulated by local land courts, (2) no tenant could be evicted so long as he paid his rent and (3) a tenant was to be paid for improvements when he moved.

This law did not solve the problem of absentee landlords. Between 1885 and 1903, the British created a fund from which peasants could borrow money to buy their farms from their landlords, repaying the government in small installments. Thus, absentee landlordism in Ireland was almost ended.

The Political Problem — the Irish Demand Home Rule. The Irish wanted their own Parliament, or self-government, which the English were unwilling to grant. In 1886 Gladstone introduced a Home Rule bill into Parliament which was defeated. In 1893 he introduced a second Home Rule bill which passed the Commons but was defeated by the House of Lords.

In 1912-14 a third Home Rule bill was passed by three successive sessions of Commons but never went into operation. The Protestants of Ulster opposed it, as did the Sinn Fein (*shinn fayn*) Party, which wanted complete independence. In the midst of the quarrel, World War I broke out and the question was put aside.

During the war the Sinn Feiners organized the Easter Rebellion (1916), which was put down by the British. The Sinn Feiners, led by Eamon de Valera (*dev-ah-lair'-ah*), set up an Irish Republic in 1918. For the next three years Irish Republicans and British fought.

A compromise was arranged in 1921 by Prime Minister David Lloyd George. Under its terms an Irish Free State was created as a self-governing dominion within the British Empire. It had its own parliament, the Dail Eireann, and controlled its internal affairs. Northern Ulster chose to remain tied to England.

In 1938 the Irish Free State adopted the new name of *Eire* and replaced the British governor with a president elected by the Irish people. During World War II, *Eire* remained neutral. In 1948 it cast off all ties with the British Empire. It has also given up the name of *Eire* and is called the Republic of Ireland.

8. Nationalism in World War I

Nationalism as a Cause of War. Nationalism was an important cause of the First World War. The following helped to keep Europe in a state of unrest and strengthened the militarists in the various countries: (1) the French desire for revenge for their defeat in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 and the loss of Alsace-Lorraine; (2) the failure of Serbia to gain access to the sea; (3) the disappointment of Russia in her efforts to secure Constantinople; (4) the efforts of the submerged nationalities within the three leading empires of Central Europe (Turkey, Germany and Austria-Hungary) to gain their freedom.

Nationalism at the Peace Treaties. As a result of the First World War, the German, Austro-Hungarian and Turkish empires were smashed and national self-determination became one of the most important bases of the peace treaties. Many new independent countries were created, and submerged nationalities were restored to independence or reunited with countries of their own nationality (see page 364).



MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

- Which of the following countries was the last to achieve national unification? (a) France, (b) Germany, (c) Russia, (d) the United States. 1. _____
- This country suffered for many years from imperial rule. A famine during the 19th Century caused many of its people to emigrate to America. (a) Belgium, (b) Finland, (c) Ireland, (d) Scotland. 2. _____
- Extreme nationalism often results in the (a) lowering of tariffs to stimulate trade, (b) growth of imperialism, (c) growth of international understanding, (d) reduction of armaments. 3. _____

4. Nationalism in 19th-Century Germany was encouraged by (a) Metternich, (b) Bismarck, (c) Engels, (d) Dürer. 4.
5. "The great questions of the day are not to be decided by speeches but by blood and iron" — was a statement made by (a) Bismarck, (b) Hitler, (c) Napoleon, (d) Mussolini. 5.
6. A major factor that contributed to the unification of Germany was (a) the military power of Prussia, (b) the influence of the Holy Roman Empire, (c) religious unity, (d) the leadership of Austria. 6.
7. The unification of the government in Italy and Germany was similar in that (a) military assistance was given by France, (b) successful liberal revolts occurred, (c) leadership was furnished by a strong state within the country, (d) monarchy as a form of government was opposed. 7.
8. I organized a society of young people whose slogan was "Liberty, Equality, Humanity" and called "Young Italy." I favored unification under a republican government. I am (a) Garibaldi, (b) Cavour, (c) Mazzini, (d) Victor Emmanuel. 8.
9. The dominant power in the Italian peninsula in 1815 was (a) England, (b) France, (c) Austria, (d) Spain. 9.
10. By 1830 national unity and independence had been gained by (a) Greece, (b) Italy, (c) Germany, (d) Czechoslovakia. 10.
11. Which national state was created in part from the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of World War I? (a) Latvia, (b) Yugoslavia, (c) Albania, (d) Turkey. 11.
12. Before 1914 the Chancellor of the German Empire was responsible to the (a) people, (b) Reichstag, (c) Bundesrat, (d) Kaiser. 12.
13. The "brains" of Italian unification was (a) Cavour, (b) Mazzini, (c) Garibaldi, (d) Charles Albert. 13.
14. The Zollverein was a (a) German war machine, (b) castle on the Rhine, (c) customs union of German states, (d) German political party. 14.
15. The foreign state that seemed to be the greatest obstacle to the unification of *both* Italy and Germany was (a) England, (b) Papal States, (c) Austria, (d) Russia. 15.
16. Which of the following had no bearing on Italian unification? (a) Franco-Prussian War, (b) conquest of Ethiopia, (c) Austro-Prussian War, (d) conquest of Sicily. 16.
17. The term most similar in meaning to nationalism is (a) patriotism, (b) imperialism, (c) absolutism, (d) industrialism. 17.
18. The main goal of the Young Turk Revolution of 1908 was to (a) modernize the country, (b) introduce democratic reform, (c) strengthen the power of Abdul Hamid, (d) bring about a war with Russia. 18.
19. The "sick man of Europe" in the 19th Century referred to (a) Austria-Hungary, (b) Turkey, (c) Russia, (d) Bulgaria. 19.
20. The Ausgleich or Compromise of 1867 (a) created a united German state, (b) led to the formation of Austria-Hungary, (c) abol-

- ished serfdom in Russia, (d) provided for dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. 20. _____
21. The role of "big brother" to the Balkan Slavs was played by (a) Germany, (b) Russia, (c) England, (d) Austria-Hungary. 21. _____
22. Which was *not* a demand of the Irish nationalists? (a) disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland, (b) end of absentee landlordism, (c) representation in the British Parliament, (d) a fair rent for tenant farmers. 22. _____
23. Bismarck favored social insurance in Germany (a) to help the industrialists, (b) to reduce the complaints of the workers, (c) to encourage socialism, (d) to build up German industry as a competitor with England. 23. _____
24. A territory that changed ownership in 1871 and 1919 was (a) Poland, (b) Lombardy, (c) Alsace-Lorraine, (d) Silesia. 24. _____
25. The Kulturkampf refers to (a) the Franco-Prussian War, (b) the German program of high tariffs, (c) the militaristic activities of Bismarck, (d) the struggle between Bismarck and the Catholic Church in Germany. 25. _____
26. An obstacle to German unification in the period from 1815 to 1860 was the (a) lack of common language, (b) rivalry between Prussia and Austria, (c) power of the Holy Roman Emperor, (d) territorial changes made by Napoleon. 26. _____
27. Austria lost her leadership in the German Confederation after the (a) Napoleonic wars, (b) Franco-Prussian War, (c) Austro-Prussian War, (d) World War I. 27. _____
28. The most important goal of Bismarck's foreign policy after 1871 was (a) acquisition of overseas colonies, (b) isolation of France, (c) achievement of naval parity with England, (d) maintenance of an independent Turkey. 28. _____
29. Cavour believed that Italy could be unified through the leadership of Sardinia because it was (a) friendly to Austria, (b) a liberal monarchy, (c) under the control of the Pope, (d) an enemy of France. 29. _____
30. Bismarck's plans to unify Germany included (a) union with Austria, (b) prevention of war with France, (c) establishment of a republic, (d) domination of the union by Prussia. 30. _____

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

- _____ led an army of Italian Nationalists and conquered the two Sicilies in 1861.
- As a result of the Austro-Sardinian War of 1859, Austria yielded _____ to Sardinia.
- The alliance of Italy and Prussia in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 enabled Italy to acquire _____.
- Italy entered the First World War to gain the land called _____.

5. Nationalism in Germany was encouraged by the customs union of 1833 called the _____
6. The war between Bismarck and the Catholic Church was called the _____
7. At the beginning of the 19th Century the _____ Empire controlled most of the Balkans.
8. The leader of the Hungarians in their revolt in 1848 was _____
9. The Hungarian leader whose efforts resulted in the creation of the Dual Monarchy in 1867 was _____
10. "Blood and Iron" was the policy favored by _____
11. The leader of the Irish Nationalists in the last quarter of the 19th Century was _____
12. Norway and _____ were separated peacefully in 1905.
13. The independence and neutrality of _____ was recognized by the European powers in 1839.
14. The two efforts of the _____ to gain their freedom in the 19th Century were suppressed by Russia.
15. The French loss of _____ to Germany in 1871 led to a desire for revenge and regaining of the territory.

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER TEST

Number the items in each of the following groups so that they are in chronological order

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>A. _____ Austro-Prussian War
 _____ Franco-Prussian War
 _____ War over Schleswig-Holstein</p> <p>B. _____ Austro-Italian War
 _____ Crimean War
 _____ Italo-Ethiopian War</p> <p>C. _____ Zollverein created
 _____ Frankfort Assembly
 _____ Bismarck becomes chancellor in Prussia</p> <p>D. _____ Addition of Sicily by Italian nationalists
 _____ Acquisition of Rome by Italy
 _____ Addition of Trieste by Italy</p> <p>E. _____ German Confederation
 _____ North German Confederation
 _____ Frankfort Assembly</p> | <p>F. _____ Greece becomes independent
 _____ Rumania becomes independent
 _____ Bulgaria becomes independent</p> <p>G. _____ Congress of Berlin
 _____ Russo-Turkish War
 _____ Crimean War</p> <p>H. _____ Separation of Norway and Sweden
 _____ Young Turk Revolution
 _____ Passage of Home Rule Bill for Ireland</p> <p>I. _____ Irish Disestablishment Act
 _____ Catholic Emancipation Act for Ireland
 _____ Organization of the Irish Land League</p> <p>J. _____ Turkish loss of Libya
 _____ Turkish loss of Greece
 _____ Turkish loss of Cyprus</p> |
|--|--|

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I

- 1. Daniel O'Connell
- 2. Francis Deak
- 3. Guiseppe Mazzini
- 4. Napoleon III
- 5. Charles Edward Parnell
- 6. Napoleon I
- 7. Francis Joseph
- 8. William II
- 9. H. von Moltke
- 10. Gioberti

II

- a. founder of "Young Italy"
- b. Irish Land League
- c. German military leader in 1870
- d. long-lived Austro-Hungarian Emperor
- e. Kulturkampf
- f. Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829
- g. helped Sardinia to defeat Austria
- h. favored Italian federation under the Pope
- i. Hungarian leader of 1867
- j. dismissed Bismarck
- k. abolition of the Holy Roman Empire



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. (a) Describe three major steps in the unification of either Germany or Italy. (b) Describe the influence of nationalism on each of the following: Austro-Hungarian Empire, British Empire, Ottoman Empire.
2. Show how the growth of nationalism in a specific country was influenced by three of the following: (a) geography, (b) industrial revolution, (c) literature, (d) political leaders, (e) religion.
3. Discuss briefly one way in which nationalism has played an important part in each of the following areas: Germany under Bismarck, Sardinia under Cavour, France under Napoleon III.
4. The Balkans have often been called the "powder keg of Europe." (a) Why were the major powers interested in the Balkans in the 19th Century? (b) How did the Balkans threaten the peace of Europe in 1908, 1912, and 1914?
5. State whether you agree or disagree with the following statement, giving at least two reasons for your position: Nationalism benefited the world in the 19th Century.
6. Describe the policies of Bismarck with regard to (a) the Catholic Church, (b) the workers and the growth of socialism, (c) industry.
7. Compare the work of Cavour with that of Bismarck, noting differences and similarities.
8. Show how each of the following was influenced by nationalism: (a) the establishment of the Dual Monarchy, (b) the Greek Revolution of 1821, (c) the Young Turk movement.
9. Show how Bismarck encouraged (a) militarism, (b) absolutism.



Imperialism

1. Its Nature and Causes

What Made Colonialism More Active? A century ago great sections of mankind still lived apart. China was a world in itself, India and the Middle East were a world, Negro Africa was a world, Islam was a world, and Europe and the Americas formed the western world. Each of these several worlds had developed its own way of life. While there were some comings and goings between these worlds, each remained for the most part mysterious and unknown to the others. It was the European white man who first brought them together.

European nations raced to acquire overseas lands after the discoveries of Columbus, da Gama, Magellan, and other explorers of the 15th and 16th centuries. This, in turn, led to the Commercial Revolution, which led to the expansion of European trade and commerce into the Americas and the Far East.

For 200 years Spain, Portugal, Holland, France and England fought for colonies in these areas. By the close of the 18th Century these wars gradually came to an end. The nations of Europe turned their attention to the French Revolution, the Napoleonic wars, the Industrial Revolution, the creation of new national states.

In the last quarter of the 19th Century the race for colonial empires was renewed. It was stimulated by (1) the growth of industrialism in many European states, with a need for new markets and new sources of raw materials, and (2) the increase in patriotic feeling among nationalists and militarists in the industrialized countries, who looked upon colonies as an expression of power and influence.

This renewal of colonial expansion is called *imperialism*. It differed from the older form of colonialism in that the 19th and 20th Century version was mainly economic, rather than dynastic or political. Imperialism may thus be defined as *the possession or control of an undeveloped area by a great power, principally for economic gain.*

MOTIVES FOR IMPERIALISM

Advantages	Example
ECONOMIC	
1. Markets for finished products.	India and China for British goods.
2. Sources of raw materials.	Britain got cotton from Egypt, rubber and tin from Malaya, oil from the Middle East.

3. Investment of capital.

POLITICAL

1. Nationalism.

Greater profits from railroads, mines in China, Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, etc.

To build up national pride (French acquisitions in Indo-China and West Africa after their defeat in the Franco-Prussian War).

MILITARY

1. Military and naval bases.

British naval bases at Hong Kong, Singapore, Aden, Cyprus, Alexandria, etc.

2. Sources of manpower for army.

North African troops form an important part of the French army.

SOCIAL

1. Outlet for surplus populations, to relieve economic and political pressures at home.

Italian and Japanese efforts to build up territories populated by their own peoples.

2. Humanitarian — the "White Man's Burden."

The White Man's obligation to bring his blessings (sometimes mixed) to the backward peoples of the world. (Cecil Rhodes defined imperialism as "philanthropy—plus 5%").

RELIGIOUS

1. Conversion of the natives to Christianity.

Particularly in Africa and the Far East.

Imperialism Takes on Many Forms. Foreign control over weaker backward states took several different forms.

Form	Definition	Examples
1. Concessionary	Economic rights and privileges granted for a specific purpose—to build a railroad, operate a mine, develop a natural resource, carry on trade.	English and American oil concessions in Arabia and other countries of the Middle East; German permission from Turkey to build the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad before 1914; German economic concessions in Shantung before World War II.
2. Sphere of Influence	Exclusive or special economic control over a country, or part of a country.	British trading rights in the Yangtze Valley in China; French privileges in southeastern China; Japanese position in Korea before 1910.

3. Leasehold	A lease secured on a given territory for a period of years.	Suez Canal Corporation until 1968; Germany in Kiachow; France in Kwong-chaw; England in Weihai-wei.
4. Protectorate	Native ruler is permitted to remain, but the great power exercises control.	French in Morocco from 1906 to 1956; British in Egypt until 1936.
5. Annexed Territory	Territory taken over which becomes a colony and is governed and controlled by the major power.	German colonies in Southwest and East Africa until 1918; French in Indo-China until 1955; English in Burma until 1948.
6. Mandate	Colonies of the defeated nations in World War I were given to the victors as mandates under the protection of the League of Nations.	German East Africa to Britain; Pacific Islands north of Equator to Japan; Syria to France.
7. Trusteeship	Former mandated territories under the League plus Italian and Japanese colonies, were turned over to U.N. after World War II and then to certain major powers.	American trusteeship over Okinawa and Caroline Islands; Italian trusteeship over Somalia.

2. Imperialism in Africa

The "Dark Continent" Is Opened Up. Africa, the second largest continent, is three times as large as Europe. Its north coast had long played an important part in history. One of the first centers of civilization was in the Nile Valley of Egypt. Later, Alexander the Great made Egypt the center of culture of a growing world. The Romans extended their rule over North Africa and made the Mediterranean a "Roman lake." The Mohammedans converted the peoples of North Africa to their religion in the 7th and following centuries. Africa became an important source of slaves for the American continent early in the 17th Century. The Portuguese had circumnavigated the globe before the 16th Century ended.

However, the central and southern parts of Africa remained "a dark continent" to Europe. The hot climate, impenetrable jungles, savages, deadly pests and unnavigable rivers kept Europeans out. They showed little interest in any but the northern part. **Who "Opened Up" Africa?** European interest in Africa was aroused just after the middle of the 19th Century by some daring explorers and adventurers.

Person	What He Did	Results
David Livingstone (Scottish missionary)	Went to Africa in 1841 and spent the next 30 years converting the natives and exploring south central Africa. Reported "lost" in 1871, he was "found" by Stanley.	His books aroused European interest in Africa.
Henry Stanley (British-American newspaperman)	"Found" Livingstone; returned to Africa to explore the Congo River and Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria.	He interested Leopold II of Belgium in establishing a colonizing company.
Karl Peters (German)	Became chief organizer and propagandist for German colonial expansion.	Acquired German East Africa from the natives. Persuaded Bismarck to take it over and extend German colonial possessions.
Cecil Rhodes (English)	Went to South Africa and acquired a huge fortune in diamond fields. Organized South African Co. which obtained ownership of a large area later called Rhodesia. As Prime Minister of Cape Colony (1890-96) he wanted to extend British rule in South Africa and to build a railroad from Cairo in the North to Capetown in the south.	Became the chief architect of British imperialism in South Africa. Through his efforts, Britain became the leading European country in the southern half of the continent.
Leopold II (King of Belgium)	Organized a private company to take over a large tract of land in central Africa. In 1885, at Berlin Conference, the major powers recognized his control over the Congo Free State. In 1908 Leopold was forced to sell his holdings to the Belgian government because of criticism of his cruelty toward the natives. The area was renamed the Belgian Congo.	Caused a race for colonies in Africa, because of its diamonds, gold, ivory, rubber, foodstuffs.



The English in South Africa. In 1815 England acquired the Cape Colony from the Dutch. The Boers, as the Dutch farmers were called, were dissatisfied with English rule and moved northward, establishing two independent republics – the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. When gold was discovered in the Transvaal, in 1886, many Englishmen moved in. The hard feelings between the Dutch and the British resulted in a British attempt to conquer the area in 1881 and 1895. Cecil Rhodes, who wanted to extend British territory, helped stir up anti-Boer feelings and the Boer War broke out in 1899. The Dutch, led by President Paul Kruger, fought stubbornly for three years, but they were defeated. In 1910 the Union of South Africa was created out of the Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal and the Orange Free State, and self-government was granted to the new dominion.

Through the colonizing efforts of Cecil Rhodes a large area north of the new state was added to the British Empire and was named Rhodesia. A protectorate was established over Bechuanaland in 1885. Kenya was added in 1888.

The English in North Africa. Britain got a solid foothold in Egypt late in the 19th Century. Although Egypt was a Turkish province, England and France had already invested money in many Egyptian businesses. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 increased British interest in Egypt. Disraeli, Prime Minister of England, bought a large block of shares in the Suez Canal Company and made the British government the largest single owner.

In the following year British and French agents took over financial control from the bankrupt Egyptian government. When the Egyptian nationalists rebelled in 1882, the French withdrew, leaving the British to occupy the country. Under the guidance of Lord Cromer, many reforms were introduced into Egypt. In 1914, after World War I broke out, England declared Egypt a protectorate.

The large area south of Egypt, called the Sudan, was brought under joint Anglo-Egyptian rule. This area was valued for its excellent cotton which supplied English textile mills with needed raw material.

To connect the northern and southern territories became the dream of Cecil Rhodes. His dream of a Cape-to-Cairo railroad, to run through British-owned land, would give England the major position in the entire continent. However, when Germany acquired East Africa, Rhodes' plans were upset.

By 1914, England emerged from the scramble for African colonies with the lion's share of territory.

The French in Africa. The French moved into Africa for nationalistic and militaristic reasons. In 1830 the French invaded Algeria and in the next few years they annexed it. France then began to

expand eastward: Tunis was taken in 1881; Morocco, to the west, or the major portion of it, came under French control. Twice, in 1905 and again in 1911, Morocco nearly touched off a general European war (see page 355).

Madagascar came under French control in 1896 and a part of Somaliland became French in the 1880's. Most of West Africa was gradually added. When France tried to extend her control into the Sudan area in 1898, she met the growing British imperialism. For a time it looked as if they would go to war, but the dispute was settled peacefully. The two countries later drew closer in an *Entente Cordiale* (see page 305).

By 1914 French possessions in Africa consisted of 3½ million square miles (about 14 times the area of France), and contained 30 million people (about three-fourths the population of France).

OTHER EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA BEFORE WORLD WAR I

Country	Possessions
Germany	A late starter in the race for territories, she had to settle for leftovers. These included Togoland, the Cameroons and Southwest Africa on the west coast, and East Africa on the east coast.
Italy	Also a latecomer, Italy acquired Eritrea on the Red Sea and Somaliland on the Indian Ocean between 1882 and 1890. Italy was defeated in 1896 when she tried to conquer Abyssinia (modern Ethiopia). In 1912 she secured Tripoli by war with Turkey.
Belgium	The Congo Free State (see page 302) was transferred to Belgium in 1908. This large tract of land, 80 times the size of Belgium, is of great value today because of its vast uranium deposits.
Portugal	One of the leading nations in the 15th-Century explorations of Africa, Portugal kept possession of Angola and Mozambique.
Spain	Outside of the strategically important tip of Morocco, the Spanish possessions (Rio de Oro and Rio Muni) are unimportant.
Independent Nations	In 1914 there were only two independent countries in Africa: Abyssinia and Liberia, a tiny state on the west coast founded by freed American Negroes.

Imperialist Clashes Before 1914. The division of Africa among the various European countries brought with it threats of wars. Among the crises were:

<i>Crisis</i>	<i>Involved</i>	<i>Result</i>
Tunis (1881)	France and Italy	Establishment of French protectorate over Tunis led Italy to join with Germany and Austro-Hungary in the Triple Alliance.
Sudan (1898)	England and France	Led to the signing of an Entente Cordiale by which England received a free hand in the Sudan and France in Morocco (1904).
Morocco (1905)	Germany and France	The Algeiros Conference (1906) recognized special French rights in Morocco.
Agadir (1911)	France and Germany	Germany challenged French attempts to make Morocco a protectorate. Settled when Germany was given some French territory in the Congo in return for German recognition of French protectorate.

3. Imperialism in Africa Since 1945

Influence of Nationalism. Africa is the last continent to be affected by the ideas of the French Revolution—nationalism and democracy. This huge continent, as big as North America and Europe combined, is an area of political change and unrest. Although the majority of its more than 220,000,000 people are still ruled by outsiders, Africans are demanding and getting increased independence, sometimes by violence.

Many young Africans, including the sons of chiefs of some of the world's most primitive areas, have been educated in Europe and America. They have taken back with them ideas of freedom and progress. They lead in demanding more education, better living conditions, and more freedom from foreign rule.

Why Is Africa So Important? The resources of Africa are very important to the whole world. Almost 95% of the world's industrial diamonds come from Africa, as does 80% of the cobalt, 50% of the gold, and 25% of the manganese. A large part of the known uranium is found there (the mines in the Belgian Congo produce 60% of the uranium used in the Western world). In addition, there are immense forests.

Politically, the relations between Africans and Europeans are important in the "cold war." How the present imperialist rulers solve the problems and meet the demands of the native peoples will determine on whose side the Africans will be found.

The location of many of these countries makes them valuable for military bases — such as the American air bases now in Morocco and Libya.

Political Division of Africa. Politically, Africa has several different types of government:

1. A group of new independent states (Egypt, Libya, Sudan, Tunisia, Morocco, Ghana, Guinea).
2. Colonies where the native population is getting an increased share in government (Central African Federation, Belgian Congo).
3. Protectorates and colonies under foreign control (French Somaliland, British Tanganyika, Portuguese Angola).

New States Since 1950

1. **Libya.** This former Italian colony was freed after World War II and made into an independent state in 1951. It is a hereditary monarchy, with a two-house legislature, and a cabinet headed by a prime minister who is responsible to parliament.

Most of the people are Moslems and they raise animals — sheep, cattle, camels and goats.

Libya is a member of the U.N., and is receiving technical aid from the West to improve its living standards.

2. **The Sudan.** Britain and Egypt jointly governed the Sudan but it is now an independent state (see page 340).

The population is largely Moslem in the north, Negro in the south. Long staple cotton is the chief crop grown and livestock raising the occupation of most of the people.

The Sudan is a republic, governed by a prime minister and cabinet, with a two-house legislature — both elected by the voters. It is being ruled by a temporary Council of State of five members until a permanent constitution is drawn up.

3. **Tunisia and Morocco.** These former protectorates of France won their independence in 1956. The people of these two countries are largely Moslem. The growth of a nationalistic movement led to violence between the French and the Moslems before the French yielded. In 1957 Tunisia became a republic.

Difficulties between the French and Tunisian governments continue because of (1) the presence of French troops on Tunisian soil, and (2) the French economic hold on the country and (3) French charges that Moroccan nationalists are helping Algerians in their fight for freedom.

4. **Ghana** Former British colony. (See pages 307, 335.)
5. **Guinea** Former French colony. (See page 307.)



AFRICA — CONTINENT IN FERMENT. The last stronghold of western colonialism is crumbling. With the exception of Algeria, the independence movement is taking place without bloodshed. Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, Morocco, Ghana and Guinea are already wholly independent. Madagascar, Senegal, French Sudan, Mauritania, Chad, Gabon and Middle Congo have declared themselves autonomous republics within the framework of the French community of nations. The merger of Ghana and Guinea in 1958 was the nucleus of a future union of West African states.

Algeria. This large area — four times the size of France — has over 10,000,000 people of whom 1,200,000 are Europeans (mostly French) and 9,000,000 are Moslems. Under its constitution Algeria is a part of France. It is represented in the French National Assembly, with its Chief Minister a member of the French Cabinet. The successes of Morocco and Tunisia have encouraged Algerian nationalists to seek freedom.

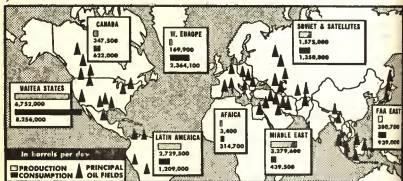
France is willing to give Moslems equal political and economic rights with the Europeans, but insists that the country remain within the French Union. This has not satisfied the Algerians. Continued fighting, involving 400,000 French troops, has been a heavy drain on the French economy, and has cost France much prestige.

The existence of oil in its southern section makes Algeria valuable to the French. Its development would make France less dependent on the Suez Canal for shipments of vital oil. This is another reason why the French do not want to let the Algerians go.

South Africa. The other troubled area in Africa is the Union of South Africa, where the most explosive issue is *apartheid* — the government's severe racial segregation policy. (See page 329.)

Africa Today Belgium, England, France, even Portugal, have granted more self-government to the Negroes in the various countries of Africa. They elect their local or national assemblies, and the people are receiving training in democracy. In addition, agriculture, industry, education and health services are being developed.

The African people throughout the whole continent are striving for complete political freedom and the end of colonialism in Africa.



THE MIDDLE EAST — A RICH PRIZE. This chart shows where the world's oil-producing areas are located. The Middle-East is one vast oilfield which is second only to the United States in number of barrels of oil produced. The Middle East uses only a small percentage of the oil it produces; the rest is exported.

4. Imperialism in the Near East — 19th Century

Why Is the Near East so Important? The strategic location of the Near East, consisting of the old Turkish Empire and Persia and Afghanistan, made it very important to Russia, England and Germany. Its natural resources, particularly oil, have increased its importance in the 20th Century.

Conflicting European Interests. England's interests in the Near East grew after the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869. To protect this short route to India, she opposed Russia's claims. Russia was interested in acquiring Constantinople (a warm water port) and in gaining political control over territory near India.

Germany wanted to improve her economic position and secured from the Turks the right to build a railroad from Berlin to Bagdad. This increased the already bitter feelings between England and Germany.

Settlement of Anglo-Russian Conflicts. Russia's drive southward to Asia brought conflict with England, especially over the approaches to India, Afghanistan and Persia. Afghanistan, because of its mountainous nature and the fighting qualities of its people, was able to keep its independence against the two European nations. In 1907 England and Russia agreed to a division of Persia: Russia was to have a sphere of influence in the northern third, Britain in the southeastern third, and the middle area was to be a "no man's land."

5. Imperialism in the Far East

Why Is the Far East so Important?

- 1. Population.** It contains the greatest concentration of population in the world — 1,500,000,000 people, or more than half the earth's total. About 600,000,000 live in China, 90,000,000 in Japan, 80,000,000 in Indonesia, 27,000,000 in Indo-China and 20,000,000 each in the Philippines, Burma and Siam (Thailand). Added to these are the 375,000,000 in India, the 80,000,000 in Pakistan, the 8,000,000 in Ceylon, 5,000,000 in Malaya, the 4,000,000 in other British possessions plus 1,000,000 living in Asiatic Siberia. Its size and population make this area of great significance in the world.
- 2. Natural Resources and Raw Materials.** The Far East possesses valuable natural resources such as tin, rubber, oil and raw materials such as tea, rice and spices.

2. *Spread of Nationalistic Ideas after 1914.* The growth of nationalism in India and China before 1914 spread to other peoples under imperialist foreign rule. As industrialism was introduced, and European ideas of democracy and freedom reached more and more people, nationalist groups were organized.

Since 1945 one country after another (India, Burma, Indonesia, the Philippines, Laos, Cambodia, Vietnam, Ceylon and Malaya) won its independence. With each victory, Western imperialism suffered another setback.

3. *The Far East as an Area of Conflict (1950—).* The growth of communism in these newly created states, and the efforts of the West to put across democratic principles, intensified the "cold war." Many new states, following the lead of India, are taking a middle-of-the-road policy of "neutralism" (not taking sides). The struggle became a "hot war" in Korea and Indo-China. More often it is a war of propaganda, economic aid and other assistance.

6. Imperialism in China

China—Land of Imperialism. Long before the 19th Century, Europeans went to China as missionaries and traders. In the 16th Century the Portuguese sought tea and silk. English and Dutch ships also entered this trade, although the Chinese government permitted them to do business only in the city of Canton.

China had an ancient civilization; its manners and morals had spread across eastern Asia. It was a self-sufficient, agricultural land and the Great Wall, built in the 3rd Century B.C. to keep out invaders from the north, symbolized its isolation.

China had been conquered in 1644 by the Manchus who forced the Chinese to wear pigtails to show that they were slaves. In the 18th Century the Manchu emperors began to restrict commercial and religious activities of Europeans in China.

The First Opium War (1839-1842). British merchants imported Indian-grown opium into China through the city of Canton. When the Chinese emperor forbade this, war between the British and the Chinese began, which ended with the Treaty of Nanking (1842). By this treaty four more ports (Amoy, Ningpo, Foochow and Shanghai) were opened to British traders. Hongkong was given to the British and China had to pay an indemnity. China was not permitted to levy more than a 5% tariff, thus permitting almost free flow for British goods.

Other countries — the United States, France, Belgium, Prussia, Holland and Portugal — demanded and received the same privi-

leges. In addition, they received *extraterritoriality* — exemption of their citizens from the control of Chinese courts, and the right to be tried in their own courts, under their own laws, for acts committed in China.

A second war involving France and England (1856) won more concessions from China. Included were the opening of more ports to European trade, legalization of the opium traffic and protection of European missionaries in China.

Europe Acquires More Territory in China (1860-1900). In 1860 Russia acquired control of the Maritime Provinces and established the port of Vladivostok. The British annexed Burma in 1886. The French, in 1883, combined Annam with other states into French Indo-China. The Japanese attacked and defeated China in 1895, and took Formosa. They also forced China to recognize the independence of Korea, which they annexed in 1910. They also obtained a concession in the Liaotung Peninsula in Manchuria.

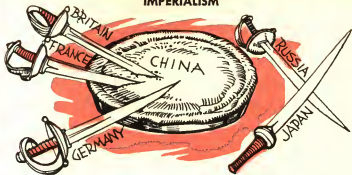
Japan's victory brought protests from the European nations. Russia was interested in the Liaotung Peninsula herself and Germany was looking for a foothold in the Far East. France lined up with them and forced Japan to return Liaotung to China. This touched off another scramble for European control in China. Within a year the following had taken place:

1. Germany won a sphere of influence in the Shantung Peninsula.
2. Russia acquired a lease in the Liaotung Peninsula, and economic concessions in Manchuria.
3. France obtained a 99-year lease of Kwangchow.
4. England established a naval base at Wei-hai-wei and a sphere of influence in the Yangtze Valley.

The Open Door Policy. The United States feared that all of China might soon be cut up into exclusive spheres of influence, or entirely divided into colonies as Africa had been. Therefore, Secretary of State John Hay proposed the Open Door policy in 1899. Under this proposal all nations were to be permitted to trade in China on an equal basis, and China's independence and territory were to be guaranteed.

The imperialist countries endorsed these principles but did not always live up to them. For the next 40 years, American policy in China was based upon the Open Door principle.

The Boxer Rebellion (1900). Foreign trade with China increased; by 1914 it had reached the total of \$600 million. Financial investing and missionary activities widened the influence of European customs and ideas. But the great majority of Chinese, humiliated nationally and exploited economically, continued to fear and distrust the foreigners.



CAUSE OF THE OPEN-DOOR POLICY. European nations took advantage of China's many weaknesses and began to carve out areas for their own exploitation. The United States stepped in to keep China from being entirely cut up and to protect American markets in China.

The Chinese, most of them believers in Confucianism with its emphasis on ancestor worship and reverence for the past, also resented Western disregard for their customs. In some instances, newly built railroads were laid through Chinese cemeteries. This angered the Chinese, who occasionally killed European traders or missionaries.

In 1900 a Chinese secret society, the Order of the Patriotic Harmonious Fists, but named the Boxers by the Westerners, began a campaign to get rid of all foreigners in China. They killed about 300, pulled up railway tracks, attacked Chinese Christians and besieged the foreign legations. The European powers, joined by Japan and the United States, sent in an international force and the Boxers were put down. China paid an indemnity of \$333 million, and she had to allow the European nations to maintain armed forces at Peking and Tientsin.

Largely through American and British efforts, China did not lose any more territory. The United States later returned half of its share of \$23,000,000 to China, to be used for the education of Chinese students in American schools. This act, plus the American "Open Door" policy, won Chinese friendship for the United States.

Creation of a Chinese Republic—1912. The Dowager Empress of China, Tzu. Hsi, tried to introduce Western reforms into China after the Boxers had been controlled. Schools were ordered to teach natural sciences, political economy and modern languages. Chinese students were encouraged to attend universities in Europe and America.

But secret revolutionary societies had begun to spring up and spread nationalist ideas. Sun Yat-sen, who founded the *Kuomintang*

(gwoh-min-dahng') (Nationalist Party), led a successful revolt against the Manchu dynasty in 1911 and a republic was established. Yuan Shih-k'ai was made president.

Weaknesses of the New Government. The government of the new republic of China faced great difficulties:

1. **Lack of Good Transportation.** China had only 6000 miles of railroad track in 1914, compared with 225,000 in the United States, which is smaller than China. Good roads were few. This made it hard to administer the country.
2. **Lack of Unity.** Local rulers of provinces, known as warlords, with large armies at their command, and with taxes collected from their people, disputed the Kuomintang control. Between 1912 and 1928, the warlords fought off the central government's attempts to control them.
3. **Continued Imperialist Interest.** During World War I, Japan tried to make China her protectorate by her *Twenty-One Demands* (1915). When the war ended, the Chinese tried to get all special concessions and extraterritorial rights in China abolished. But none of the powers would agree. When China refused to accept the Treaty of Versailles, Japan took control of most of the German rights in China and her possessions in the Pacific.

Sun Yat-sen's "Three Principles." Before Sun Yat-sen died in 1925, he summed up his goals for China in a book called *Three Principles of the People*. These were: (1) *Democracy*—a government in which the people were sovereign; (2) *Nationalism*—the ending of foreign imperialist influence; and (3) *Livelihood*—social welfare and economic improvement, with industrialization and land reform as the most important goals.

How Communist Influence Grew. When the Western powers refused to give up their special privileges in China at the Versailles Conference, Sun Yat-sen turned to Russia for help. Between 1921 and 1925, China received Russian aid in arms, advisers, loans and propaganda. Russia also gave up her concessions and extraterritorial rights. A Chinese Communist movement was organized.

Chiang Kai-shek Attempts to Unite China. Gradually the Kuomintang split apart. The right wing consisted of businessmen and office holders; and the left wing of Communists, dissatisfied students, intellectuals and radicals.

After Sun Yat-sen died his place was taken by Chiang Kai-shek (jee-ahng' ky'-shek'). The Kuomintang expelled the Communists and Chiang began a drive against the war lords to unify the country. In two years (1926-28) Chiang brought them under his control, and moved the capital of China south from Peiping to Nanking.

Chinese Civil War Disunites China. In 1927 Chiang Kai-shek turned against the Communists. For the next ten years the Nationalists and Communists struggled for control. Chiang led troops against the Communists but was not able to conquer them because they were popular with the peasants. The Chinese Communists, led by Mao Tse-tung, established a strong government in northwestern China.

Except for a brief period in 1932-33, when both sides agreed to a truce to face the Japanese invasion of Manchuria, China was torn apart by this civil war. It halted again in 1937 when both sides joined to face further Japanese expansion efforts in north China but broke out again and again in the next few years.

Japanese Aggression in China. Between 1894 and 1941 Japan became the most dangerous imperialist conqueror facing China.

In 1937 Japanese troops overran north China and the coastal area. Chiang's troops retreated to the interior, employing guerrilla and "scorched earth" tactics (destroying everything of value) to halt the Japanese. American loans and supplies helped to prevent Japan from taking all of China.

China's Role in World War II. The Japanese attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii (1941) made this "China Incident" a part of World War II. The Allies, particularly the United States, gave China money, arms, troops and military instructors.

China was treated as a great power by her allies. Chiang took part with England and the United States in the Cairo Conference (1943), which dealt with the war in the Far East. Western nations gave up most of their special rights in China, and in 1943 the United States repealed the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 which had barred Chinese from entering the United States.

The Chinese Communists Are Victorious (1949). The end of World War II did not bring peace to China. The two groups — Nationalist and Communist — again turned to fighting each other. Chiang Kai-shek's government would not allow greater democracy or political and economic reforms. It wasted, by bribery and corruption, a great deal of the \$2 billions in aid given to it by the United States. It ignored the advice and suggestions offered by American experts. Great numbers of its soldiers deserted to the Communists.

Communist troops took over all of Manchuria (1948) with its great natural resources and pushed southward. One city after another fell, until by December, 1949, all of continental China was in the hands of Mao Tse-tung. Chiang Kai-shek and his Nationalist forces retreated to the island of Taiwan (Formosa).

Communist China Since 1949

1. **Political Changes.** The Chinese Communists established control over the mainland of China, Manchuria, Inner Mongolia, Chinese Turkestan and Tibet. In the process, many people were killed, and the landlord and big business classes were thrown off their property. The intellectual, peasant and worker groups became the important classes.

A constitution adopted in 1954 created a government similar to that of the Soviet Union. Mao Tse-tung became chairman of the Communist Party and also of the People's Republic. The Communist Party has about 11,000,000 members (2% of the people) and there is a powerful secret police to keep a close check on the people. Communist propaganda is strong in the schools, the press, art and music.

In 1959 Liu Shao Chi became chairman of the People's Republic; Mao Tse Tung remained as Communist Party Chairman.

2. **Economic Changes.** Agriculture has been collectivized (co-operatively owned); industry has been nationalized. The Chinese First Five Year Plan (1953-57) increased heavy industry (steel and hydroelectric production) and expanded agricultural production. Manchuria's steel centers of Mukden, Harbin, and Changshun have been enlarged. The Second Five Year Plan (1958-62) aims also to increase consumer goods. However, industry is still in its infancy in China.

Russia is lending billions of dollars worth of equipment and 20,000 Soviet technicians. China is paying for this by exports of agricultural and other products to Russia.

About 80% of Communist China's trade is with Communist countries, usually by exchange of products. The United States and other major European countries have refused to trade with Communist China. In 1957 England and Japan entered trade relations with Communist China although not in war materials.

3. **Foreign Relations.** The United States, followed by many other countries, has refused to recognize the Chinese Communists as the official government of China. They have been recognized, though, by many nations including England, India, the Scandinavian countries, Holland, Russia, and the rest of the Soviet bloc. When the Chinese fought on the side of the North Koreans in the Korean War and helped the North Viet Minh Communists, Americans hardened their stand toward the present government.

Other conflicts between Communist China and the West are over (1) China's seat in the United Nations and on the

Security Council, now occupied by Nationalist China; and (2) United States aid given to Nationalist Formosa, which the Communists regard as part of China.

In 1959 the Tibetans revolted against their Chinese masters, and the Dalai Lama, spiritual leader of Tibet, fled to India when the Chinese Communists took over his country completely. This exposed Communist aspirations to the other small countries in Asia.

Nationalist China Since 1949. Chiang Kai-shek led the remnants of his Nationalist forces to Formosa where he has maintained himself with American assistance and protection. A mutual defense treaty signed in 1955 provided for American defense of Formosa and the Pescadores Islands. The American Seventh Fleet patrols the waters off the coast, and instructors from the United States train the 500,000 soldiers. This treaty was put to the test in 1958 when the Communist Chinese renewed their demands for the off-shore islands and shelled Quemoy and Matsu. The United States sent naval and air force aid to Formosa.

Chiang Kai-shek still controls the Nationalist Party and still hopes to lead his army in a conquest of the China mainland. His is recognized as the official Chinese government, and it holds China's seat in the United Nations.

7. Japan — a World Power

What Japan Was Like Before Perry's Visit. The Japanese Empire was even more secluded in the middle of the 19th Century than China had been. The first Europeans arrived in Japan near the middle of the 16th Century. Trade was gradually extended and



SUN YAT-SEN



CHIANG KAI-SHEK



MAO TSE-TUNG

LEADERS OF CHINA FROM 1911 TO THE PRESENT. Sun Yat-sen, the father of the revolution that overthrew the Manchus, was China's first leader. Upon his death in 1925, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek became the leader of China. When Chiang fled to Formosa, Mao became the communist dictator of China.

Christian missionaries (particularly St. Francis Xavier) converted thousands of Japanese. Japanese traveled to Europe, and brought back European ideas. Then, in the 17th Century their attitude changed. The Spaniards and Portuguese were driven out by 1640, and from then until 1854 only a few Dutch merchants were allowed to remain in Japan.

The government was feudalistic. The emperor, or *Mikado*, lived in seclusion. Actual control was in the hands of a *shogun*, who was helped by the great landowners, called *daimios*. These lords had a great deal of feudal authority over their subjects. The daimios and their armed retainers, the *samurai*, who lived by a code of chivalry known as *bushido*, were forced to recognize the leadership of the shogun and spend part of the year at his court at Yedo (later Tokyo). By 1800 this city contained a million residents — it was larger than the London or Paris of that day.

The religion of the Japanese (*Shintoism*) glorified the emperor as a sacred being and required absolute obedience to him. This nationalist religion was important in creating Japanese unity.

Westerners Open Up Japan. Japan's isolation ended in 1853 when the American Commander Matthew C. Perry visited that country with a small fleet to secure from the government a pledge of protection for American trade. The following year a treaty was signed between the two countries which allowed American ships to visit two ports. England, Holland and Russia obtained similar privileges. In 1858, Townsend Harris, another American envoy, negotiated a commercial treaty; its provisions were extended also to other countries.

These early treaties were resented by many in Japan because they gave the Americans and Europeans extraterritorial rights and control of the tariff on foreign goods. Anti-foreign incidents in 1863-64 led to the bombardment of several Japanese ports by European and American warships. Frightened by their own weakness, the Japanese decided to modernize their country and adopt Western practices and ideas.

The Westernization of Japan. The revolution inside Japan in 1867 forced the Shogun to abdicate. The emperor, Mutsuhito, took over active control of the government. Within the next generation Japan was transformed into a modern, unified, militaristic, industrialized and imperialist nation. The changes included:

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| Political | 1. Power of shoguns ended. |
| Reforms | 2. Emperor became real head of the government. |
| | 3. Written constitution adopted with a two-house parliament of limited powers. |
| | 4. Administration centralized. |

- Economic Reforms**
1. Feudalism abolished.
 2. Peasants and factory workers became landowners.
 3. Industrialization begun.
 4. Railroads and merchant marine built; national and foreign trade encouraged.
 5. Currency and postal system adopted.
- Social Reforms**
1. Public school system on western lines created, with universities established at Tokyo and Kyoto.
 2. New criminal and civil law codes adopted along Western lines.
- Military Reforms**
1. Modern army created, with Prussia as a model.
 2. Modern navy created, with England as a model.

Japan Takes the Road to Imperialism. Japan's reasons for her imperialistic policy were: (1) the rapid growth of population (from 33 million in 1872 to 46 million in 1902); (2) the lack of fertile land (5/6 of Japan is too rugged for cultivation); (3) the need for coal, iron, oil and cotton for industry and an expanding factory system; (4) the need for markets for her growing output of manufactured products; (5) her geographic position, favorably located with regard to China and other weak countries in the Far East. Her design for conquest was evident after 1900.

Japan convinced the Western nations that a new power had developed in the Far East by her victories over China (1894-95) and Russia (1904-05). As a result of the Sino-Japanese War she won Formosa, the Liaotung Peninsula and a sphere of influence in Korea. Although forced to give up the Liaotung Peninsula because of Russian, German and French protests (see page 312), Japan's power was recognized by a military alliance with Britain in 1902.

The Russo-Japanese War resulted in unexpected defeats for the Russians on land (at Mukden, where 625,000 soldiers took part) and on sea (at Tsushima Straits, where the Russian fleet was destroyed). President Theodore Roosevelt helped to negotiate the *Treaty of Portsmouth* (1905). Under the terms of this treaty, Japan was given the southern half of the island of Sakhalin (valuable for its fisheries) and a dominant position in Manchuria. For his efforts, President Roosevelt was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1906. In 1910 Japan annexed Korea and renamed it Chosen.

In World War I, Japan joined the Western allies against Germany. She conquered German possessions in China and the Pacific Ocean and received, after the war, mandates over the former German islands and the former German leases in the Shantung Peninsula.

America Opposes Japanese Expansion. The growth of Japanese power in the Far East, and Japan's evident aim to become the

dominant nation in the area, brought on these conflicts with the United States:

1. *Size of Navies.* The naval building race between the major powers during and after World War I grew threatening. To promote peace, the United States proposed at the Washington Conference (1922) that a limit be placed upon the size of navies of the leading powers. Japan agreed to have a navy equal in size to 60% of the American and British fleets (a ratio of 5:5:3). This inferiority was resented by the military group that won control of the Japanese government in the 1930's, and it held the United States responsible.
2. *Immigration to the United States.* When the United States adopted the Japanese Exclusion Act in 1924, prohibiting Japanese from entering the country as immigrants, Japan was angered.
3. *Japanese "Closed Door" Policy.* At the Washington Conference Japan signed the *Nine Power Treaty*. Under its terms, the territorial and political independence of China were guaranteed, and the Open Door principles of equal trading rights recognized. The Anglo-Japanese alliance of 1902 was ended and a *Four Power Pact* (England, the United States, France and Japan) was substituted by which each country pledged itself to respect the colonial possessions of the others. Japan later violated both of these treaties as she expanded in China and the Far East. She hoped to eliminate foreign influence in that part of the world.

Japan Conquers Manchuria. Manchuria, rich in natural resources, had been long desired by Japan. On the excuse that Chinese bandits were destroying the Japanese-controlled South Manchurian Railroad, Japanese armies took over the Chinese province in 1931.

China appealed for help to the League of Nations. A special commission (the *Lytton Commission*) was sent to China. It recommended that Japan be condemned, that it withdraw its troops from Manchuria and that the province be given self-government under Chinese sovereignty.

Japan ignored these recommendations and in March, 1933, withdrew from the League. She then proclaimed the independence of Manchuria, renamed it Manchukuo and put on its throne Pu Yi, a former Emperor of China deposed in 1912. The United States refused (in the *Stimson Doctrine*) to recognize this action because it was a violation of the Nine Power Treaty. Manchukuo became a puppet state of Japan.

Efforts to colonize this area with Japanese settlers were not successful. However, its natural resources were developed and railroads and factories were built.

Invasion of North China (1937). Japan denounced the naval treaties in 1936 and began to build up her navy. In 1937 she started to conquer China. The Chinese, with American economic and financial aid, resisted. Japanese goods were boycotted in America, but American businessmen continued to sell Japan the oil, cotton, scrap iron and steel she needed in this "undeclared war."

The Japanese Attack Pearl Harbor (1941). While World War II in Europe engaged the attention of the major powers, Japan seized the opportunity to strengthen her position in the Far East. In 1940 she signed treaties with Germany and Italy which made her a full Axis partner. In 1941 she moved troops into French Indo-China and Thailand and threatened Burma, Malaya and the Dutch East Indies. She said she was just insuring "Asia for the Asiatics" and getting rid of European exploitation.

These moves alarmed the United States, which was still neutral. Washington shut off exports of oil and metals to Japan and froze Japanese credits in the United States. While in the midst of "peace talks" with the United States, Japan, on December 7, 1941, attacked and badly damaged the American fleet at Pearl Harbor.

The United States immediately declared war on Japan and other countries followed suit. The Axis powers declared war on the United States. World War II had become a global war.

Japan Wins Many Battles, But Not the War. British naval strength in the East was destroyed by the Japanese air force shortly after Pearl Harbor. Japan then conquered Guam, Wake Island, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Singapore, Burma, Malaya and much of the Dutch East Indies within six months. India and Australia were threatened.

America's sea power recovered from the Pearl Harbor attack, and her industries stepped up military production. American military, naval and air forces forced the Japanese back to their home islands by conquering one Japanese base after another (Solomon Islands, 1942; New Britain, 1943; the Marshall, Mariana and Philippine Islands, 1944-45; Iwo Jima and Okinawa, 1945).

The British regained most of Burma, the Australians landed on Borneo and the Chinese cut the Japanese off from Indo-China. American planes dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945.

After the atomic explosions Russia declared war on Japan and the Japanese government asked for peace. On September 2, 1945, an armistice ended the Second World War.

Japan During American Occupation. After the armistice, Japan was occupied by American forces under General Douglas MacArthur. Many measures were adopted to help the economic and political recovery of Japan.

1. A new constitution, drawn up in 1947, provided for (a) responsible ministry, (b) woman suffrage, (c) guarantees of civil liberties, (d) the abolition of Emperor divinity, (e) an end to military conscription, and a renunciation of war, (f) an elected legislature, (g) separation of church and state.
2. The partial break-up of economic monopolies.
3. Farm reform, transferring a third of the land from large landlords to more than 3,000,000 peasants.
4. Changes in textbooks eliminating the glory of war, emperor worship and excessive nationalism.
5. Encouragement to trade unions.
6. Trials of Japanese war criminals, resulting in long prison terms and some executions.

Treaty of Peace (1951). The success of the Chinese Communists and the spread of the "cold war" made the United States want to strengthen its position in the Far East. In spite of Russia's objections, an international conference met at San Francisco and drew up a formal treaty of peace with Japan.

Under its provisions:

1. Japan's conquests, Formosa and Manchuria, were returned to China; Korea became independent; southern Sakhalin was returned to Russia, in addition to the Kuriles Islands.
2. Payments by Japan for damages to invaded countries were to be in goods and services rather than money.
3. Japan was permitted to maintain a police force but to have no weapons for war.
4. All occupation troops were to be withdrawn.

At the same time the United States signed a treaty of mutual assistance with Japan by which it undertook to protect Japan against invasion in return for army and naval bases.

Why Japan Is Important to the West

1. It is strategically located near Communist China.
2. Its economic strength with its valuable steel and ship-building facilities makes it the leading industrialized nation in the Far East.
3. It has a large supply of military manpower.
4. It is a democratic nation in Asia.

Japan Since the Treaty of Peace

1. **Internal History.** Japan has been governed by a liberal cabinet since 1947. Premier Nobusuke Kishi came to the United States in 1957 and was promised speedy withdrawal of American troops from Japan, and more economic and military aid.

Between 1950 and 1956, Japan's industrial production doubled, but her biggest economic problem is her export trade.

Territorial losses greatly reduced her sources of raw materials and increased her need for imports. The consumer demands of her 90,000,000 people are steadily increasing. 700,000 new workers must be given jobs every year. In spite of her efforts, Japan's trade is still below 1939 levels.

American trade is vital to Japan. In 1955, 22% of her exports went to the United States, and 31% of her imports came from there. Efforts to increase her export figures are opposed by American producers who object to the importing of Japanese goods which compete with American products.

Trade with China was cut off almost completely after China came under Communist control. The need for markets led the Japanese to reopen trade in 1957 with the Communist Asiatic bloc and to increase business with Indonesia and Thailand.

2. **Foreign Relations.** In 1956 Japan and Russia signed an agreement which ended the state of war that had existed between them since 1945. Diplomatic and trade relations were established. In 1956 Japan was admitted to the United Nations.

After the war Japanese military power had been limited to a defense force of 150,000 soldiers, plus a few warships and planes. The mutual defense pact signed with the United States in 1951 made Japan's defense a major point of American Far Eastern policy. To lessen her dependence upon America, Japan has begun a program of rearmament with United States help to build up her army and air force. The United States is also withdrawing her troops from Japan.



JAPAN'S EMPIRE BEFORE AND AFTER WORLD WAR II. Japan, an island empire in the Pacific Ocean with an area of about 145,000 square miles, expanded her territory through conquest until by 1942 it ruled the vast area shown by the broken line. After the war, under the Potsdam surrender terms, she was stripped of her territory and confined to her home islands.

8. The Changing British Empire

The World's Largest Empire. The British in 1914 boasted that "the sun never sets on the British Empire." The empire covered approximately 12,000,000 square miles — about one-fourth of the world's population.

The British Empire is important because of (1) its size, population and resources; (2) its many different forms of government and control; (3) it is the outstanding example of empire-building; (4) it was the first to develop the principle of self-government within an empire; (5) it is vital to the forces of democracy in today's world; (6) its relations with the United States are of deep concern to Americans.

Organization of the British Empire. As it grew, it developed varied types of government and control as seen in the following chart.

Type	Date Created or Established
1. United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Mother country (England, Scotland, Wales, Ulster)
2. Dominions	
a. Canada	1867
b. Australia	1900
c. New Zealand	1907
d. Union of South Africa	1910
e. Ireland	1921-1949 (Withdrew to become independent).
f. India	1947 (Became independent republic within the Commonwealth in 1950).
g. Pakistan	1947 (Became a republic in 1956)
h. Ceylon	1948
i. Ghana	1957
j. Federation of Malaya	1957
3. Protectorates	
a. In Africa:	Bechuanaland (1885); Swaziland (1906); Uganda (1894); Northern Rhodesia (1924); Nyasaland (1891); Somaliland (1884); Zanzibar (1890).
b. In Asia:	Bahrein Islands (1928); Borneo (1881); Solomon Islands (late 19th Century)

4. Colonies	
a. In Europe:	Gibraltar (1713); Malta (1814); Cyprus (1914).
b. In Africa:	Basutoland (1884); Kenya (1920); Gambia (1843); Nigeria (1879); Southern Rhodesia (1923); Sierra Leone (1788).
c. In the Western Hemisphere:	Bahamas (1717); Barbados (1627); Bermuda (1684); British Guiana (1814); British Honduras (1871); Jamaica (1655); Trinidad (1797).
d. In Asia:	Aden (1839); Saravale (1946); Hong Kong (1841); Singapore (1946); Gilbert Islands (1915); Borneo, (since 1946).
5. Mandates and Trusteeships (since 1945):	
a. In Africa:	Tanganyika (1919, 1946); South West Africa (mandate of Union of South Africa).
b. In Asia:	Papua and New Guinea (trusteeship of Australia); Western Samoa (New Zealand mandate and trusteeship).
Some mandates have been given their independence, e.g., Iraq in 1932, Jordan in 1946, Palestine (Israel) in 1948.	

The British Dominions. In this far-flung empire, the most important are the dominions — countries that have won self-government. These make up the largest part of the Empire in territory and population. The colonies and protectorates were acquired mainly because of their military or naval importance (Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, Singapore, Hong Kong).

The older dominions — those created before 1920 — were largely settled and developed by emigrants from the mother country. Therefore, they are tied by language, culture and historical traditions to England. The newer dominions, created since 1945, are populated mostly by non-English-speaking peoples who have had little experience in self-government. Thus the ties between them and England are chiefly economic.

British Commonwealth of Nations. The self-governing dominions are associated with England as equal partners in the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The Commonwealth came into existence after 1918 and was formally established at the Imperial Conference of 1926, attended by the prime ministers of the dominions.

The *Statute of Westminster* (1931) defined the relation and powers of the dominions: (1) Each dominion is master of its own

affairs. (2) No law passed by a dominion government can be vetoed by the English Parliament. (3) Each dominion may make its own laws, establish its own currency system, control its trade and relations with other countries, and may wage war and make peace on its own. It supports its own military forces. (4) The British Crown is to be represented by an appointed governor-general. (In recent years the governor-general has been a native of the dominion. India, Malaya and Pakistan elect their own heads of state.) (5) A Dominion may secede from the union. (Ireland did so in 1949. India changed its form of government from dominion to independent republic in 1950, but has chosen to remain in the Commonwealth.)

Ties That Bind the Commonwealth. Although there are many different races and nationalities, languages and customs, historical traditions and religions within the Commonwealth, there are certain ties that bind the Commonwealth together:

1. **Common Background.** In the case of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and to some extent South Africa, the ruling group is of English descent. Common traditions and customs have proved to be a strong link, particularly in the two World Wars.
2. **Loyalty and Allegiance.** Devotion to the British Crown is strengthened by royal visits to the dominions and possessions.
3. **Common Defense.** For many years the British navy protected the dominions. In recent years, the dominions have sought other help. Australia and New Zealand have a mutual aid pact with the United States (Anzus Pact). Canada gets protection through the Rio Pact and NATO. All of the dominions are members of the United Nations. Pakistan is a member of the South East Asia Treaty Organization and of the Bagdad Pact. England also belongs to these organizations (except the Rio Pact).
4. **Economic Bonds.** A program of *Imperial Preference* (lowering of tariffs among the members of the Commonwealth) following the Ottawa Conference of 1932 has promoted trade within the dominions. From 15% to 65% of the dominions' export trade and from 8.5% to 54% of their import trade is with England. The Commonwealth nations proposed at the Colombo Conference of 1950 a plan to help their less industrialized members to improve their economic and living standards. Non-Commonwealth nations have also joined the Colombo plan. Since 1950 this aid program has cost over \$2½ billions.
5. **Imperial Conferences.** The leading statesmen of the Commonwealth meet to discuss problems common to all, such as trade, defense, and relations with other states.

Canada — the Oldest of the Dominions. Canada was won by England as a result of the French and Indian War in 1763. The people then were French who lived in the eastern part of the country. To this day the province of Quebec is peopled by descendants of these French, and both French and English are official languages of the province.

Although the French Canadians remained loyal to the British government during the American Revolution, they did not like the strict British rule. A rebellion broke out in 1837 in Lower Canada, which was mainly French, and spread to Upper Canada (mainly British). The British government put it down and sent Lord Durham to investigate Canadian complaints. The *Durham Report* (1839) recommended self-government and, ten years later, it was formally recognized by Parliament.

In 1867 the *British North American Act* organized the Canadian provinces into the Empire's first dominion. Its government was modeled after that of the mother country, with a governor-general acting for the king, a Senate in place of the House of Lords, and a democratically elected House of Commons to which the cabinet was responsible. The Canadian dominion was recognized as an equal partner with England by the Statute of Westminster in 1931.

Canada is larger than the United States, but has less than one-tenth of its population — about 16,000,000 people. It is rich in nickel, uranium, gold, oil and other natural resources. It manufactures iron and steel, processes food and makes wood pulp. It is an important agricultural country.

Its relations with the United States — economic, political and military — have been very close. Much of its industry is controlled by United States corporations. Fifty-nine per cent of its exports go to, and 75% of its imports come from, the United States. The 3000-mile boundary between the two neighbors is completely unfortified. They have created a Joint Board of Defense and both are members of NATO

The Dominion of Australia. Britain acquired this island which is as big as the United States, after voyages of exploration by Captain James Cook (1768-1775). The first British settlements were made in New South Wales.

For 50 years this colony served as a prison for British criminals. But the opportunities for raising sheep and the discovery of gold in 1851 led thousands of free Englishmen to the colony. As a result, England stopped sending her convicts there.

Five other colonies in Australia were set up during the first half of the 19th Century. England offered them self-government and, in 1900, the Dominion of Australia was created.

The government of Australia resembles that of the United States. It has a High Court similar to the Supreme Court, a Senate representing each state on an equal basis, and a House of Representatives in which seats are distributed according to population. The federal government is given specific powers, all others being reserved to the states. The governor-general, appointed by the English monarch, reigns in her name but does not rule. Unlike the American system, the Australian cabinet is responsible to the parliament rather than to the executive.

Australia is the world's chief producer of wool; and sheep farming is her most important single industry. Wheat is her leading crop. Steel, cement, cotton and wool yarns are her major industrial products.

Australia has large resources of gold, coal, silver, lead and zinc. England is Australia's best customer as well as leading supplier. These strong economic ties hold her close to England. Her population includes 9,500,000 people, largely of English descent, and about 50,000 native Australians.

Australia has pioneered in welfare legislation. The government runs public services and owns mines. Compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes was established as early as 1904. Australia gave the world the secret ballot and allowed women to vote long before England herself did. Fearful of the surrounding Asiatic peoples, the government has adopted laws to keep out all non-whites.

The Dominion of New Zealand. This country, with a little over 2,000,000 people, consists of two large islands and some small ones, 1250 miles east of Australia. It was discovered by Captain Cook in 1769, annexed as a colony in 1840, granted self-government in 1856 and it became a dominion in 1907. The native Maoris were brought under control after ten years of bitter fighting (1861-71).

New Zealand's government is headed by a governor-general appointed by the British ruler, but he has little power. There is a one-house legislature, with a cabinet responsible to it. New Zealand early adopted advanced social legislation, including votes for women, old age pensions and accident insurance. There is compulsory arbitration of labor disputes, and government ownership of railroads, coal mines and life and fire insurance companies. Education is free and compulsory for all between the ages of 7 and 15.

New Zealand is one of the world's largest exporters of mutton, lamb, wool, butter and cheese. Her chief industries are the freezing of meat and the making of butter, cheese and condensed milk. Sawmilling and clothing are also important. England is the dominion's best customer, taking two-thirds of its exports and supplying it with more than half of its imports.

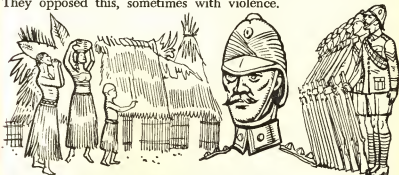
Union of South Africa After defeating the Dutch in the Boer War, (see page 303) the English granted them self-government and dominion status in 1909-10. The Boers outnumbered the British, and elected a majority of the members of the parliament. One of their number, General Louis Botha, became the first premier of the Union. Botha accepted the new order, and loyally kept South Africa within the British Empire.

General Jan Smuts succeeded Botha as premier, governing from 1919 to 1924, and again from 1939 to 1948. Under his leadership South Africa supported Britain in two World Wars.

The Nationalist Party won the election in 1948 and Dr. Daniel Malan became Prime Minister. Against the protests of the United Nations, his government annexed the territory of Southwest Africa that it had received as a mandate in 1919. It adopted legislation to insure racial segregation and white supremacy in the Union.

This continues to cause friction and disturbances in South Africa. Of the 14,000,000 people in the Union, 2,000,000 are whites (the Afrikaaners, or Boers, and the British), 9,500,000 are Negroes (chiefly Bantus), 1,250,000 are of mixed races, and 300,000 are Asiatic (mainly Indians). The white minority rules the country.

Under Malan, a policy of segregation, called *apartheid* (apart-ite) was adopted to take colored voters (persons of mixed Negro and white descent) off the voting lists. Under this program a Negro is excluded from all skilled occupations, cannot quit his job, be absent from work, strike, or own his own home in cities. He is not eligible for education above elementary school. He must respect the curfew, have passes of all sorts and carry an employer's certificate at all times. Negroes are required to live in certain towns, or in the suburbs of large cities to make it easier to control them. They opposed this, sometimes with violence.



THE "NEW IMPERIALISM." By 1880 interest in imperialism swept like a wave over Europe. England, France and Germany began a scramble to acquire colonies in Africa. The reason for the acquisition of colonies, it was said, was a desire to help less advanced peoples and raise their standard of living.

Britain would like these strong segregation policies softened. J. G. Strydom, who was prime minister (1954-58) had considered taking the Union out of the Commonwealth unless Britain stopped interfering in South African matters.

Strydom also wanted to incorporate Bechuanaland, Swaziland and Basutoland into the Union. The peoples of these areas are against such a move, for they do not want *apartheid* applied to them.

So the Union of South Africa is faced with racial problems, attempts to annex British colonies, and a struggle for recognition of its policies by the world's democracies.

Although primarily an agricultural and grazing country, producing maize, wheat, sugar and wool, manufacturing has grown since World War II. Food processing plants, an iron and steel industry, cement, chemical and textile factories have been built. The Union is the world's leading gold producer, and also mines large quantities of coal and diamonds. Britain is its best customer and chief supplier.

India — Its Peoples and Early History. This vast sub-continent first came under European influence following the visit of Vasco da Gama in 1498. For the next 100 years the Portuguese monopolized trade with India. Meanwhile, the British founded the East India Company. It set up its first factory at Surat in 1612 and began expanding its influence, at the same time fighting the Indian rulers and the French, Dutch and Portuguese traders. The defeat of the French and Moslem armies by Robert Clive (Battle of Plassey, 1757) laid the foundations of British imperial rule in India. Bombay, taken from the Portuguese, became the center of British operations.

The British East India Company ruled over India until 1858. The company gradually brought the native rulers, or rajahs, under its control. Indian resentment came to a head in the *Sepoy Mutiny* of 1857, an uprising of the native troops in the East Indian army. The company had introduced a new type of cartridge greased with the fat of cows and pigs, which was against the religious principles of the Hindu and Moslem soldiers. British soldiers put down the revolt.

In 1858 the British Parliament transferred control of Indian affairs from the East India Company to the British government, with a Viceroy as its representative. In 1877 Queen Victoria was crowned Empress of India.

A handful of Englishmen were able to govern this country of 315,000,000 people (the 1914 population) for several reasons:

1. **Religious Divisions** within India. About 2/3 of the people of India were Hindus; 70,000,000 were Moslems; 11,000,000 were Buddhists and 5,000,000 were Christians.

2. *Racial Differences* between the Hindu, Moslem and other peoples.
3. *Rigid Class Divisions* within the Hindu religion, called *castes*, which divided the members from each other. It also excluded millions of *untouchables*, or outcasts, with whom the other castes could have no contact.
4. *Language Differences*. Over 200 languages and dialects were spoken in India, making it difficult to create a feeling of unity among the people.
5. *Political Divisions*. Six hundred Indian rulers governed two-fifths of India under treaties recognizing the British rule. The rest was governed directly by the British. A policy of "divide and conquer," or playing one native ruler against another, helped to make British rule secure.
6. *Undeveloped Nature of the Country*. Illiteracy, extremes of poverty and wealth, absolute rule by British and Indian rulers, and primitive methods of farming, made it easy for the British to control India.

Growth of a Free Nation. The formation of an All-India Congress Party in 1885 marked the beginning of a drive among the intellectuals of India to create a free Indian nation. This drive spread in spite of British construction of railways, schools, hospitals and factories. The British, in 1919 and 1937, granted the Indians a degree of self-government, but the nationalists demanded complete freedom.

In the 20th Century the Congress Party came under the leadership of Mohandas Gandhi (later called "Mahatma" or "Saintly One"). He was born a Hindu, had been educated in England, and became a lawyer. Gandhi spent 21 years in South Africa fighting to improve conditions among the lower-class Hindu immigrants there. He returned to India in 1914 to take up the fight for freedom. From 1920 on he and his followers carried on a campaign of civil disobedience or "non-violent non-cooperation."

Gandhi's followers would not take part in government, send their children to government schools, buy English goods, serve in the army or pay taxes. Gandhi hoped this would make it hard for the British to govern and would speed their departure from India. He urged Indians to use the spinning wheel in protest against English textiles. He was also interested in improving the status of the 50,000,000 "untouchables."

The Moslem minority in India organized the Moslem League in 1906. Under the leadership of Ali Jinnah, the Moslems fought against the 1937 proposals of the English which offered India much self-government. The Hindus and Moslems both opposed Indian participation in World War II, though England promised dominion

status when the war ended. When this offer was rejected by the Congress leaders, the English arrested Gandhi, Nehru and others.

By this time the British government was convinced that it could no longer hold India. In 1947 Parliament ended British rule. India was divided into two dominions – the Hindu part remaining India, the Moslem states gaining freedom as Pakistan. Burma too was made independent, and the island of Ceylon was granted dominion status.

A great exchange of Moslem and Hindu populations took place in 1947-49, during which many religious riots occurred. Gandhi was assassinated in 1948 by a member of a Hindu extremist group which was against his non-violence policy.

India Becomes a Republic. In 1947 Jawaharlal Nehru became the prime minister of the Dominion of India. It adopted a parliamentary system of government with a two-house legislature and a cabinet responsible to the lower house. A few years later India became a republic but kept her membership in the Commonwealth.

Suffrage was made universal and "untouchability" was abolished. Hindi was made the official language of India, although English will still be official until 1965.

Nehru, in 1956, joined together India's hundreds of small states into a union of 14 states, with six areas administered by the central government. The Congress Party continues to be the major party in India.

Economic Problems Facing India. Most of India's 375,000,000 people are undernourished and diseased. The average Indian lives only 32 years – as compared with over 70 in the United States. Although 7 out of 10 inhabitants are farmers, India does not produce enough food for her people. Small plots of land, primitive farming methods and unwillingness to accept new ideas create periodic famine and starvation.

The Indian government's Five Year Plan of 1951-56 was aimed at increasing food production by 20%. Irrigation projects added 8,000,000 acres of new farm land. A second Five Year Plan emphasizes industrialization. Steel and electricity, transportation and communications systems are major parts of this program.

Nehru has sponsored a program called the *Community Project* which sends trained workers to teach Indian villagers and cooperate with them in increasing agricultural production, improving sanitation standards, eliminating malaria and establishing schools and conducting adult education classes. Four out of five Indians can neither read nor write.

Foreign economic aid has been of great importance to India in this program. The United States has given free gifts of grain to the

starving millions, in addition to more than \$450 millions in technical assistance and loans. Russia is helping to build a new steel plant, though the Communist movement is not very strong in India.

India is a big producer of rice, cotton, tea, jute and sugar. Cotton and jute manufacturing are the two largest industries. The iron and steel industry is being expanded, as are silk and woolen goods, cement, leather and shoes. Britain leads the United States in being India's best customer.

China, having gobbled up Tibet, was now perched on India's border. In September, 1959, China clashed with India over China's claim to territory under Indian control. In spite of this act of aggression, India again proposed Red China for membership in the U.N. Again action was postponed.

Kashmir — a Trouble Spot. This rich province in the northern part of the sub-continent has had a troubled history since 1947. Its population is 85% Moslem, but the ruling prince is Hindu. Pakistan claims that Kashmir belongs to her because of its Moslem majority. India claims it should be part of her country.

When war broke out in 1948, the United Nations stepped in and arranged that a plebiscite should determine to which country Kashmir should be joined. The plebiscite has not yet been held. The southern section, held by India, was incorporated into India in January, 1957. The rest of Kashmir continues to upset relations between Pakistan and India.



PARTITION OF OLD INDIA. In 1947 old India was divided into two independent countries—the Dominion of India and the Dominion of Pakistan. In 1950 India became a Republic while Pakistan remained a dominion. As you can see from the map, East and West Pakistan are widely separated by India. Kashmir, claimed by both India and Pakistan, was officially proclaimed the 14th state of the Indian Union in 1957. However, Pakistan has not given up her claim to this state.

Pakistan — World's Largest Moslem State. Pakistan has 80,000,000 people (1958), of which 86% are Moslem and 13% Hindu. Its history before 1947 was similar to that of India, of which it was a part until it received dominion status. Mohammed Ali Jinnah, leader of the Moslem League, was the statesman most influential in Pakistan's creation. In 1956, Pakistan proclaimed itself a republic but continued to be a member of the British Commonwealth.

Pakistan consists of two provinces — East and West. They are about 1000 miles apart, separated in part by Kashmir. A president is elected for five years by members of the central and provincial governments, and an Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, also for a five-year term. The prime minister and his cabinet are named by the president but are responsible to the Assembly.

The history of Pakistan since 1947 has been stormy. Eastern and Western Pakistan have no common language, geographic unity or economic strength. It is at odds with India over Kashmir. Its strong leaders, with aid from democratic nations, including the United States, have helped it to survive many crises.

Pakistan produces wheat, rice, jute and tea. Textile mills, jute factories, sugar refineries and flour mills are being built. It exports agricultural products and imports manufactured goods. Britain is Pakistan's leading customer and most important supplier. The United States is second.

Pakistan is a member of SEATO and of the Bagdad Pact. India is trying to follow a neutral policy in the cold war. This difference in foreign policies also strains relations between the two countries.

Ceylon. Ceylon is a large island lying 12 miles southeast of the southern tip of India. The British won it from the Dutch and made it a Crown Colony in 1796. In 1948 it became a dominion within the British Commonwealth. The majority of its 9,000,000 people are Buddhists.

Ceylon is mainly agricultural. It raises large quantities of tea, rubber and coconut products, but it must import foodstuffs, particularly rice. Britain is its best customer.

The island is fairly prosperous. Its living standards are higher than those of India, its nearest neighbor.

Federation of Malaya. Malaya consists of nine states and the former Crown Colonies of Malacca and Penang. It became a member of the British Empire in the late 19th Century. Japan held it temporarily during World War II. After the war Communist-led guerrillas caused disturbances until British troops subdued them. The Federation of Malaya was created in 1948, received independence in 1957 and became a dominion. In 1957 it was admitted to the United Nations as the 80th member.

Malaya is a constitutional monarchy. Its ruler is chosen from among the heads of its various states for a five-year term. The prime minister and his cabinet are responsible to the lower house of the legislature, which will be elected for the first time in 1959.

The Federation's 6,000,000 people are divided in origin — 50% are Malayan, 38% Chinese, 11% Indian. Malaya is the world's largest producer of natural rubber, and supplies half of the world's tin. Britain is her best customer.

Malaya faces many problems. (1) Under the constitution most Malaysians of Indian and Chinese descent do not possess citizenship rights and, thus, may not vote. (2) The Malaysians are emphasizing "one nation, one people, one language," and are not willing to let the Chinese preserve the language and culture of their ancestors. (3) The important port of Singapore remains a British colony — yet 80% of Singapore's 1,300,000 inhabitants are Chinese and, if they were added to the Chinese in Malaya, the Chinese would outnumber the Malaysians.

Ghana. Until 1957 this country was known as the African Gold Coast. It was discovered by the Portuguese in the latter part of the 15th Century and was a center of African slave trade. It became a British colony in 1874.

In the years after World War II Ghana gained self-government. British Togoland was added in 1956 after a plebiscite (with U.N. approval) and, led by Kwame Nkrumah, it won independence and became a dominion in March, 1957. It joined the United Nations as its 81st member a few days later.

The government of Ghana is headed by a governor-general appointed by the British Crown, and he is advised by a Council of Ministers headed by the prime minister. A popularly elected Assembly makes the laws for Ghana's 4,500,000 people, all but 12,000 of whom are Negro. This makes Ghana another independent state in Africa in which Negroes predominate. Its progress is being watched closely by other nations.

Ghana leads the world in the production of cacao, and also raises nuts, coffee and rubber. Mineral resources include gold, diamonds, manganese and bauxite. England is its best customer and also its leading supplier.

DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER PARTS OF THE EMPIRE

Africa

Federation of Nigeria — given its own legislative and executive council; promised independence by 1960.

Kenya — the rebellion of the *Mau Maus* (moh-mohs) (1952-56) was put down.

Middle East

Central Africa Federation (Rhodesia and Nyasaland) — created in 1953 to provide training in government with hopes for dominion status by 1960.

Sudan — originally governed jointly with Egypt until 1953, when it became self-governing. In 1955 its independence was recognized by England and Egypt. It was admitted to the U.N. in 1956.

Iraq — made a mandate of England in 1920; received its independence in 1932 and was admitted to the League of Nations and later the United Nations.

Jordan — made a mandate of England in 1920, became independent in 1946, with military support given the ruler until 1957 and again in 1958.

Palestine — England's mandate over it was given up in 1948, which led to the creation of Israel.

Western Hemisphere

The various British colonies in the Caribbean area, (*Bahamas, Bermudas, Barbados, British Guiana, Jamaica, Trinidad*) have some self-government, with promises of dominion status in the near future.

Change — British Empire to British Commonwealth. British foreign policy has changed to meet the rising tide of nationalism and the creation of independent states. Instead of regarding only settlements of white men as suitable for graduation from colonial to dominion status, self government is being encouraged in colored dependencies. Instead of expecting each colony to keep its spending within its own revenues, the British government is contributing funds to promote economic development, education and public health.

The British Empire is disappearing, but the British Commonwealth remains strong, bound together by economic ties.

9. The French Empire

The Size and Extent of France's Empire. It ranks second to that of England in size and importance — though it, like the British Empire, has shrunk. Before World War II, France controlled large areas in Africa (Algeria, Tunis, Morocco, West Africa, the French Cameroons, Equatorial Africa, Madagascar); in Asia (Indo-China); in

the western hemisphere (French Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique); and in the Pacific Ocean (New Caledonia, New Hebrides). These covered an area of about 4,500,000 square miles.

The French Union Is Formed. Nationalist movements in her colonies led France to give them greater freedom in order to keep them. The French constitution of 1946 established the *French Union*, patterned after the British Commonwealth of Nations. This consisted of France, the overseas departments, territories, trusteeships and associated states.

The overseas departments are Algeria, Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana. They are represented in the French National Assembly and in the Council of the Republic.

The Constitution also created a High Council nominated by the French government and the associated states, and an Assembly of the French Union, with advisory powers. A 1956 law gave greater self-government to the overseas territories.

However, these reforms did not satisfy the colonial nationalists. Since 1950 these changes have taken place in the French Empire: (See pages 306-307.)

Possession	Events	Outcome
Morocco	Sultan deposed by France in 1953, but his return was forced in 1955.	Independence recognized in 1956; admitted to United Nations.
Tunisia	Self-government granted (1955). In 1957 it became a republic.	Independence recognized in 1956; admitted to United Nations.
Indo-China	War between the French and nationalists complicated by Communist-led guerrillas. Granted self-rule in 1950. Cambodia and Laos withdrew from the French Union in 1955; Viet Nam divided between Viet Minh (Communist) and Viet Nam forces. Viet Nam is a part of French Union.	Cambodia and Laos are independent kingdoms (1955) and are members of the United Nations. Viet Nam was divided by treaty in 1954, the northern part under the Communist forces led by Ho Chi Minh, and the southern part as the Republic of Viet Nam.
Algeria	Fighting going on since 1954; in Sept. 1959, De Gaulle offered independence, integration with France or autonomy with close ties to France.	General Charles de Gaulle called to head French government in Algerian crisis (1958), to settle this problem.
French Guinea	Voted to detach itself from French Empire (1958).	Its independence recognized (1958). U.N. 1958.



THESE, TOO, ARE FRENCHMEN. The French Union is made up of people of many different religions, nationalities and colors. With the movement toward independence, the French Union is growing smaller.

10. *The Dutch Empire*

Until recently the largest and most important part of the Netherlands Empire was the Dutch East Indies. This area, which was conquered by the Dutch in the 16th Century, covers 575,000 square miles and has a population of 85,000,000 (1956). The copra, rubber, pepper, quinine, oil and tin of these islands (Sumatra, Borneo, Java, Celebes, West New Guinea) were important to Holland.

The Dutch exploited (used for advantage or profit) the Indonesians, most of whom are Moslems. A nationalistic movement, led by Achmed Sukarno, sprang up after World War II occupation by the Japanese. Fighting broke out and continued until the United Nations secured Dutch recognition of Indonesian independence (1949).

At first, Indonesia and Holland were equal members in a union. This was ended in 1954 by the Indonesian government. They disagreed over the status of Netherlands New Guinea, which Indonesia considered part of her territory. In 1957 much Dutch-owned property was taken over by the Indonesians to force out the Dutch.

11. *The American Empire*

The United States, although not a large colonial power, has also been affected by nationalist movements, and its empire has undergone changes since 1940.

Possession	How Acquired	Government and Status
Alaska	Purchased from Russia 1867.	In 1958, became the 49th state in the Union.
Hawaii	Annexed 1898.	Governed by elected legislature with a governor appointed by American President.
Puerto Rico	Acquired from Spain 1898.	Has its own legislature and elected governor; a commonwealth voluntarily associated with United States. Its people are American citizens.

Philippines	Acquired from Spain in 1898.	Became independent republic in 1946.
Samoa, Virgin Islands, Wake, Guam	By annexation or treaty.	Important as bases. Administered by the United States Department of the Interior.
TRUSTEESHIPS		
Mariana, Caroline, and Marshall Islands	Given by U.N. in 1947.	Important as bases in Pacific. Under administration of the United States Department of the Navy.

12. The Italian Empire

Following the example of other European countries, Italy had entered the race for colonies in Africa. The territories that she acquired proved to be more costly than profitable. Italy lost them all when she was defeated in World War II.

Territory	How Acquired	Present Status
Libya	By war from Turkey 1912.	Independence recognized 1951.
Ethiopia	Conquered 1936.	Independence regained 1941.
Eritrea	Taken over by Italian Government, 1890; organized as colony.	Became part of Ethiopia 1952.
Somaliland	By treaties — 1889 and after.	U. N. trusteeship, under Italian administration until 1960.

RESULTS OF IMPERIALISM

Upon the Mother Country	
<i>Good</i>	<i>Bad</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prosperity through greater industrial activity based on increased raw materials, markets and investments. 2. Increased trade for the mother country. 3. New products and drugs introduced from the colonies. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Colonial and imperialist wars among the great powers. 2. Support of large military and naval forces. 3. Heavier burden of taxation. 4. Hatred aroused among people of colonies and undeveloped areas toward imperialist countries.

Upon the Colony

Good

1. Development of natural resources.
2. Industrialization and higher standards of living.
3. Medical, educational and sanitary improvements.
4. Training of the natives in self-government.
5. Development of nationalism.
6. Abolition of backward customs such as *suttee* (widow cremates herself on funeral pile of husband, India).

Bad

1. Development of resources for primary benefit of imperial power.
2. Profit from cheap native labor.
3. Destruction of native culture.
4. Introduction of Western diseases and vices.
5. Discouragement of native industries that compete with those of mother country.
6. Increase of racial tensions.
7. Lack of democracy.

WORLD IMPERIALISM AND NATIONALISM SINCE 1920

Area	Imperialist Control	Nationalist Reaction
IN AFRICA		
Egypt	English protectorate 1881-1922.	Gradual elimination of foreign influence after 1922; Nasser and the Suez Canal 1956.
Tunisia and Morocco	French control 1881-1955.	Revolts lead to independence 1956.
Libya	Italian colony 1911-45.	Independent state 1951.
Sudan	Joint Anglo-Egyptian control 1898-1955.	Independence 1955.
Ghana	British colony 1874-1957	Independence and dominion status 1957.
French Guinea	French colony.	Independence 1958.
IN MIDDLE EAST		
Palestine	British mandate 1920-46.	Independence as State of Israel in 1948.
Jordan	British mandate 1920-46.	Independence in 1946.
Iraq	British mandate 1920-32.	Independence 1932.
Syria	French mandate 1920-46.	Independence 1946.
IN ASIA		
India	British control 1763-1947.	Congress Party fights for and gains independence 1947.
Pakistan	British control 1763-1947.	Moslem League fights for and gains independence 1947.

Ceylon	British control 1763-1947.	Independence and dominion status 1948.
Burma	British control 1886-1948.	Independent 1948; not a part of British Commonwealth.
Malaya	British control 19th and 20th centuries.	Independence and dominion status 1957.
Cambodia	French control 1863-1955.	Independence 1955.
North Vietnam	French control until 1955.	Communist state 1955.
Vietnam	French control until 1955.	Republic within the French union.
Laos	French control 1893-54.	Independence 1954.
Lebanon	French mandate 1920-41.	Independence 1941.
Indonesia	Dutch control 1595-1949.	Independence 1949.
Korea	Japanese control 1905-1945.	North Korea — Communist state; South Korea — republic created 1948.
Philippine Islands	American control 1893-1946.	Independence 1946.
IN EUROPE		
Ireland	Under British control from 12th Century to 1922.	Dominion in 1922, a republic in 1937 and secession from British Commonwealth in 1949.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



- Which of the following terms was recommended in the Durham Report? (a) the British government should have more control over the colonies, (b) the colonies should pay higher taxes, (c) the colonies should pay for their armies and navies, (d) Canada should have self-government in internal affairs. 1.
- Political or economic control over a weak, undeveloped area by a large or powerful nation is known as (a) absolutism, (b) imperialism, (c) liberalism, (d) socialism. 2.
- Which one of the following countries has the same status as Canada in the Commonwealth of Nations? (a) Australia, (b) Burma, (c) Israel, (d) British Guiana. 3.
- Under the leadership of Sukarno, an independent republic was proclaimed here in 1945. Formerly ruled by the Dutch Queen, this area is rich in rubber and tin. It is (a) Burma, (b) Indonesia, (c) Siam, (d) West Indies. 4.
- The partition of India in 1947 resulted in the creation of the new nation of (a) Burma, (b) Pakistan, (c) Siam, (d) Tibet. 5.

6. Which of the following has *not* been a cause of British imperialism in Africa? (a) government ownership of industry, (b) desire to civilize backward people, (c) need for raw materials, (d) search for new markets. 6.
7. In the development of the Commonwealth of Nations, which one of these events occurred *last*? (a) the Statute of Westminster, (b) establishment of the Dominion of Canada, (c) creation of the Irish Free State, (d) granting of independence to India. 7.
8. China was forced to open her doors to western commerce as a result of war with (a) France, (b) Great Britain, (c) Japan, (d) Russia. 8.
9. Which of these nations changed from a feudal state to a modern industrial state in the shortest period of time? (a) France, (b) Germany, (c) Great Britain, (d) Japan. 9.
10. Which one of the following is a basic cause of unrest throughout Asia? (a) complete control by European powers, (b) lack of important natural resources, (c) manpower shortage, (d) low standard of living for the majority of the people. 10.
11. With which slogan is Sun Yat-sen most closely associated? (a) "Peace, Bread, Land," (b) "Nationalism, Democracy, Livelihood," (c) "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," (d) "Government of the People, by the People and for the People." 11.
12. An important reason for the decline of the British Empire during the 20th Century was the (a) death of King George VI, (b) growth of nationalism, (c) increased restrictions by Parliament, (d) rise of labor unions in England. 12.
13. Which one of the following imperialistic activities of Japan occurred *first*? (a) bombing of Pearl Harbor, (b) invasion of Manchuria, (c) entrance into the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis, (d) invasion of the Philippines. 13.
14. The main cause of unrest in the Union of South Africa today is (a) loss of natural resources, (b) unstable government, (c) racial conflict, (d) religious differences. 14.
15. A serious problem that has faced Japan since 1945 is (a) overpopulation, (b) removal of the Emperor, (c) surplus armament, (d) administration of her colonial possessions. 15.
16. As a 19th Century prime minister, I made an important contribution to the growth of the British Empire by securing control of the Suez Canal. I am (a) Sir Robert Walpole, (b) Benjamin Disraeli, (c) Sir Winston Churchill, (d) William Gladstone. 16.
17. An important factor in the development of the British Empire during the 19th and 20th centuries was (a) naval supremacy, (b) need for iron and coal, (c) nearness to undeveloped areas, (d) United States aid. 17.
18. An important reason for the interest of the Western powers in China during the 19th Century was that China (a) had a large supply of oil, (b) was a good market for farm machinery, (c) served as an outlet for Europe's surplus population, (d) offered opportunities for profitable trade. 18.
19. The most valuable resource of the Middle East is (a) iron ore, (b) oil, (c) tin, (d) rubber. 19.

20. Control of the Congo area gives Belgium an important source of (a) uranium, (b) oil, (c) nickel, (d) nitrates. 20.
21. In the British Empire, the greatest amount of self government is given to the (a) crown colonies, (b) mandated territories, (c) dominions, (d) protectorates. 21.
22. The leading imperialistic country in Asia from 1920 to 1945 was (a) China, (b) India, (c) Soviet Russia, (d) Japan. 22.
23. British control of South Africa was actively promoted by (a) Robert Clive, (b) Cecil Rhodes, (c) Rudyard Kipling, (d) David Livingstone. 23.
24. Which group pairs two political leaders of the same nation? (a) Bao Dai—Mao Tse-tung, (b) Gandhi—Nehru, (c) Chiang Kai-shek—Ho Chi Minh, (d) Sun Yat-sen—Hirohito. 24.
25. Which group pairs two valuable resources of southeast Asia? (a) bauxite—uranium, (b) oil—copper, (c) iron—coal, (d) tin—rubber. 25.
26. Which event was an evidence of China's resistance to foreign control? (a) the Boxer Rebellion, (b) establishment of the Chinese Republic, (c) the Sepoy Mutiny, (d) her entrance into World War I. 26.
27. A man whose writings developed a feeling of pride in his nation's colonial empire was (a) Nehru, (b) Kipling, (c) Tolstoi, (d) Sun Yat-sen. 27.
28. The Republic of India became independent as a result of (a) a Communist revolution, (b) a decision made by the United Nations, (c) an agreement with Great Britain, (d) World War I. 28.
29. An Asiatic nation that claims to be taking a neutral position between the Communist and Western powers is (a) Pakistan, (b) India, (c) Japan, (d) the Philippines. 29.
30. Which country has left the British Commonwealth and Empire? (a) Ireland, (b) Ceylon, (c) Pakistan, (d) India. 30.
31. Which country in Asia was *never* under the control of a European power? (a) Burma, (b) Thailand, (c) Indonesia, (d) Malaya. 31.
32. An important result of the Russo-Japanese War was that Japan (a) became a world power, (b) became a republic, (c) began to be westernized, (d) ceded Korea to Russia. 32.
33. Which nation was conquered by Italy in the 1930's and regained its independence after World War II? (a) Egypt, (b) Ethiopia, (c) Libya, (d) Liberia. 33.
34. Which is the most highly industrialized nation in the Far East? (a) Burma, (b) India, (c) Japan, (d) Korea. 34.
35. Which country promoted the idea of a Cape-to-Cairo Railroad? (a) Great Britain, (b) France, (c) Germany, (d) Italy. 35.
36. Where does the government of Nationalist China maintain its headquarters? (a) Cambodia, (b) Hong Kong, (c) Formosa, (d) Singapore. 36.
37. Which two countries have become independent since 1950? (a) Ethiopia and Liberia, (b) Algeria and Morocco, (c) Libya and the Sudan, (d) Kenya and the Congo. 37.

38. Hong Kong belongs to (a) Nationalist China, (b) Communist China, (c) Japan, (d) Great Britain. 38.
39. Egypt at one time or another has been all of the following *except* (a) a Turkish province, (b) a British protectorate, (c) a member of the Commonwealth, (d) an independent nation. 39.
40. The *least* significant factor in encouraging colonial expansion in the 19th Century was (a) growth in manufacturing, (b) religious oppression, (c) improvement in transportation, (d) the need for raw materials. 40.
41. Formosa today is controlled by (a) Mao Tse-Tung, (b) Chiang Kai-shek, (c) Ho Chi Minh, (d) Syngman Rhee. 41.
42. The nation in the Far East that best fits the description "The England of the Orient" is (a) China, (b) Japan, (c) Burma, (d) India. 42.
43. As a result of the Opium War (a) the United States formulated the Open Door Policy, (b) England acquired Hong Kong, (c) Formosa was ceded to Japan, (d) Russia moved into Korea. 43.
44. Nationalism developed slowly in China because of her (a) adoption of western industrialization, (b) political disunity, (c) dependence on western imports, (d) refusal to follow the reforms of Mutsuhito. 44.
45. American policy in Japan after World War II was based on a desire to (a) punish Japan for the war, (b) give the Japanese people a chance to develop freely, (c) wipe out Japanese competition with its trade, (d) occupy her land as a permanent base to control the Pacific. 45.
46. Gandhi urged the people of India to overthrow British rule by (a) armed resistance, (b) forming alliances with other powers, (c) non-cooperation with the British, (d) uniting with Pakistan. 46.
47. The law which states that any dominion is free to leave the Commonwealth of Nations at any time is (a) the British North American Act, (b) Lord Durham's Report, (c) the Statute of Westminster, (d) Parliament Act. 47.
48. A great power which never acquired a lease, sphere of influence, concession or possession in China was (a) England, (b) Germany, (c) France, (d) the United States. 48.
49. The Kuomintang tried to (a) unify China, (b) make China Communist, (c) make China a monarchy, (d) depose Sun Yat-sen. 49.
50. Since 1945 the British Empire has (a) grown tremendously in area, (b) grown tremendously in population, (c) been reduced both in area and population, (d) remained the same in both area and population. 50.
51. The Mohammedans are organized into the state of (a) Hindustan, (b) Pakistan, (c) Rajistan, (d) Mysore. 51.

52. The main cause of the new imperialism was (a) the spread of political democracy, (b) the industrial revolution, (c) new interest in Christianity, (d) the desire to improve native economic conditions.
52.
53. The revolution which changed Japan from a backward to a modern state included all of the following *except* (a) the formation of a republican government, (b) the introduction of a written constitution, (c) the overthrow of feudalism, (d) the adoption of industrialization.
53.
54. India's unsolved problems include all of the following *except* (a) civil war, (b) overpopulation, (c) underproduction, (d) economic independence.
54.
55. Which of the following statements may *not* be considered a result of imperialism? (a) conflict over undeveloped areas by the great powers, (b) rise of nationalism among native peoples, (c) decline in number of independent states, (d) military and naval competition among the great powers.
55.
56. The apartheid program of the Nationalist Party in South Africa calls for (a) the separation of Negroes from whites, (b) the elimination of British influence in the government, (c) the nationalization of the Kimberley mines, (d) the withdrawal from the Commonwealth of Nations.
56.
57. Great Britain originally secured power over the Suez Canal by (a) building it, (b) seizing it from Egypt, (c) buying the controlling shares of stock, (d) winning it in World War I.
57.
58. Advocates of imperialism include all of the following groups *except* (a) army and navy officials, (b) the working class, (c) big manufacturers and bankers, (d) missionary societies.
58.
59. Extraterritoriality means (a) the right of free trade, (b) the right of citizens of great powers to be tried in their own courts, (c) the equality of native populations, (d) the Open Door Policy.
59.
60. The British East India Company transferred control of India to the British government after (a) the defeat of Clive, (b) the Sepoy Mutiny, (c) the successes of the Congress Party, (d) the adoption of the Open Door Policy.
60.
61. In 1957 the former British colony of the Gold Coast became the independent state of (a) Nigeria, (b) Liberia, (c) the Sudan, (d) Ghana.
61.
62. Relations between Pakistan and India are strained today because of the province of (a) Punjab, (b) Kashmir, (c) Goa, (d) Mysore.
62.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. Independent nations in Africa: (a) Egypt, (b) Ethiopia, (c) Libya, (d) Kenya.
2. Nations having at least one colony in Africa: (a) Belgium, (b) France, (c) Germany, (d) Portugal.
3. Products that stimulated colonial expansion in Africa: (a) diamonds, (b) gold, (c) petroleum, (d) rubber.
4. Leading cities of Africa: (a) Cairo, (b) Calcutta, (c) Capetown, (d) Johannesburg.
5. Events related to the history of Africa: (a) Boer War, (b) Open Door Policy, (c) destruction of Carthage, (d) Napoleon's campaigns.
6. Areas of India: (a) Kashmir, (b) Punjab, (c) Madras, (d) Tibet.
7. Conquerors of parts of India: (a) Robert Clive, (b) Commodore Perry, (c) Alexander the Great, (d) Genghis Khan.
8. Leading exports of India: (a) tea, (b) beef, (c) cotton, (d) jute.
9. Leading cities of India: (a) Bangkok (b) Calcutta, (c) Bombay, (d) Karachi.
10. Native leaders of India: (a) Gandhi, (b) Nehru, (c) Feisal, (d) Jinnah.
11. Spokesmen of imperialism: (a) Rudyard Kipling, (b) Cecil Rhodes, (c) Sun Yat-sen, (d) Benjamin Disraeli.
12. Nations that competed for control of the natural resources of the Near East in the 19th Century: (a) England, (b) France, (c) Japan, (d) Russia.
13. Natural resources for which nations are competing: (a) coal, (b) oil, (c) steel, (d) uranium.
14. Important population groups in the Union of South Africa: (a) Boers, (b) Indians, (c) British, (d) Japanese.
15. Economic causes of imperialism in the 19th Century: (a) need for raw materials, (b) need for markets for finished products, (c) need for socialization of industry, (d) need for places to invest surplus capital.
16. Japanese territorial losses after World War II: (a) Formosa, (b) Manchuria, (c) southern half of Sakhalin Island, (d) Hong Kong.
17. New members of the Commonwealth of Nations since 1945: (a) Burma, (b) Ghana, (c) Pakistan, (d) Malaya.
18. Leaders of the republic of India: (a) Krishna-Menon, (b) Nehru, (c) Ali Jinnah, (d) Gandhi.
19. Associated with the opening up of Africa: (a) David Livingstone, (b) Karl Peters, (c) Jan Smuts, (d) Henry Stanley.
20. Steps in Japanese imperialist expansion: (a) Twenty-One Demands, (b) Russo-Japanese War, (c) Sino-Japanese War, (d) Boer War.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I

- _____ 1. Cecil Rhodes
- _____ 2. Leopold II
- _____ 3. Matthew Perry
- _____ 4. Robert Clive
- _____ 5. Vasco da Gama
- _____ 6. Shintoism
- _____ 7. Mutsuhito
- _____ 8. Lord Durham
- _____ 9. Ali Jinnah
- _____ 10. Kwame Nkrumah
- _____ 11. Sukarno
- _____ 12. J. G. Strydom
- _____ 13. John Hay
- _____ 14. Lord Lytton
- _____ 15. Ho Chi Minh

II

- a. opening up of Japan
- b. Japanese religion
- c. Premier of Ghana
- d. establishment of British supremacy in India
- e. his report led to withdrawal of Japan from the League of Nations
- f. British expansion in Africa
- g. founder of Moslem state in India
- h. founder of Indonesia
- i. leader of Chinese Communists
- j. the Congo Free State
- k. reform emperor of Japan
- l. leader of Indo-Chinese Communists
- m. Open Door Policy
- n. Portuguese explorer
- o. his report became the basis for Canadian dominion status.
- p. Apartheid policy in South Africa



IDENTIFICATION TEST

Write in the space at the right of each statement below the letter preceding the country to which the statement best applies.

- | | | | |
|-----------|------------|--------------|-----------------|
| a. Canada | d. England | g. Ghana | j. New Zealand |
| b. China | e. France | h. India | k. Pakistan |
| c. Egypt | f. Germany | i. Indonesia | l. South Africa |

1. The grazing of sheep, cattle and goats on the veld is a very profitable industry for this country. 1. _____
2. Her resources of iron and coal did much to promote the beginnings of the Industrial Revolution. 2. _____
3. In this country the caste system hindered progress. 3. _____
4. The Manchus of this country were overthrown and a republic was established about 1912. 4. _____
5. The history of this dominion has been influenced by the culture of England and France. 5. _____
6. This agricultural region was under Dutch control for about 350 years prior to World War II. In 1949 it won its independence. 6. _____
7. Formerly known as the Gold Coast, it has graduated to the rank of Dominion within the Commonwealth of Nations. 7. _____
8. This European country has lost much of its colonial possessions in North Africa because of nationalist ideas. 8. _____
9. This country has federated with Syria. 9. _____
10. This Commonwealth has long been a "laboratory for social legislation." 10. _____

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Show the influence of each of two of the following men on the history of Africa: David Livingstone, Cecil Rhodes, Haile Selassie, Jan Smuts.

2. Show how imperialism was a result of the industrial revolution in Europe.

3. (a) Show that former control of India by Great Britain resulted in both an advantage and a problem to Great Britain. (b) Discuss the importance of India in world affairs today.

4. Discuss the importance of each of three of the following in the history of modern Japan: (a) Shintoism, (b) westernization, (c) relations with Korea, (d) American occupation, (e) establishment of communism in China.

5. (a) Discuss important reforms that were adopted by Japan in the 19th Century. (b) Discuss important changes that have taken place in Japan since the end of World War II.

6. Select one of the following areas of the Far East: China, India, Korea, Indonesia. Discuss the influence of each of two of the following on the country you have selected: (a) a native leader, (b) a foreign power, (c) geographic feature.

7. (a) What is meant by imperialism? (b) State two benefits that may result from imperialism. (c) State two unfortunate results that may follow imperialism.

8. Tell how each of two areas of Africa has figured prominently in the news in the last five years.

9. Show how each of two of the following areas has presented a problem to its mother country since 1945: (a) India, (b) French Indo-China, (c) British Malaya, (d) the Netherlands East Indies, (e) the Union of South Africa, (f) Morocco.

10. Show how each of three of the following present a problem for the Republic of India: (a) customs and traditions, (b) natural resources, (c) relations with Pakistan, (d) the rise of Red China.

11. Describe a change in government that has taken place in each of the following countries since 1945: (a) Burma, (b) China, (c) India, (d) Malaya.

12. Discuss briefly three of the following statements, giving two historical facts in support of each statement selected. (a) Imperialism has been a cause of war. (b) Imperialism has influenced the standard of living of colonial peoples. (c) The Second Industrial Revolution brought about a revival of imperialism. (d) Imperialism has been abandoned in some areas since 1945.

13. "Modern imperialism was developed during the 19th Century and is declining or being given up during the 20th Century." Explain two reasons why colonialism flourished in the 19th Century, and two reasons why it has declined in the 20th Century.

14. Discuss, giving specific facts, the influence of two of the following on China: (a) European expansion in China, (b) emergence of Japan as a world power, (c) rise of communism.

15. Show the connection between imperialism, militarism and nationalism.

16. The British Empire has declined since World War II. (a) Name five former British possessions which have achieved self-government or complete independence since World War II. (b) In the case of one of the countries mentioned in (a) describe in detail how it won self-government or independence. (c) Discuss fully two reasons for this decline in British imperial power.

17. "Before 1945, one-third of the people of the earth were colonials under a foreign flag. Today less than one-tenth are colonials. This is news of the first magnitude." (a) Explain four reasons why imperialism spread until it included one-third of the earth's people. (b) Show how imperialism both helps and hurts a colony. (c) Show how the European nations have attempted to change the imperialist pattern by the mandate system and trusteeship system.

18. Discuss fully the influence of each of three of the following men upon the British Empire: (a) Cecil Rhodes, (b) Jan Smuts, (c) Mahatma Gandhi, (d) Mohammed Ali Jinnah, (e) Eamon de Valera, (f) Kwame Nkrumah.

19. (a) Discuss two reasons why Japan became westernized more rapidly than China. (b) Explain why Japan's imperialism brought her into conflict with Russia, and with the United States.

20. How has the victory of the Chinese Communists created problems for (a) the United Nations, (b) the United States, (c) Great Britain, (d) Japan, (e) Russia.

21. Describe the relations of each of the following countries before 1945 with China. (a) Japan, (b) the United States, (c) Russia, (d) Great Britain.

22. (a) What is meant by a self-governing dominion? (b) What benefits does a dominion gain from being a member of the Commonwealth of Nations?

23. (a) Explain the meaning of each of three of the following terms: sphere of influence, colonization, protectorate, economic penetration. (b) Show how a European country has used two of these means to develop its imperial policy.

24. Describe the influence of nationalism upon European imperialistic programs in Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria, the Gold Coast.

25. "Imperialism, the natural outgrowth of aggressive nationalism, inevitably leads to war". Discuss the truth or falsity of this statement, giving specific facts to prove your answer.

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

7. The Last One Hundred Years

Soon after the Industrial Revolution, man reached a peak of physical well-being. Inventions made life easier and mass production brought more good things to more people. Safe, comfortable travel and rapid communication brought the world closer together.



SECRET BALLOT



CURIE



WORLD WAR I



LEAGUE OF NATIONS



DictATORS



ROOSEVELT

Yet, twice, power-mad nations plunged the world into war. And twice valiant attempts were made to unite the notions of the world in peace and co-operation.

Out of the depression that gripped the world following World War I rose dictators in Germany, Italy and Russia. In the United States, President Roosevelt took heroic steps to bring the United States out of the grip of depression.

Marie Curie's discovery of radium increased man's knowledge of the sciences, and led to the discovery of atomic power — the same power that now runs plants, airplanes, bombs, submarines, missiles — the same power that has pushed satellites into orbit in outer space and will one day send man on voyages of exploration into an unknown world.

Meanwhile, the battle for peace keeps pace with the struggle of free nations to remain free of the yoke of dictators. Unless nations find a way to use nuclear power for peaceful purposes, man may write finis to the March of History.



SPACE EXPLORATION



JET AGE



ATOMIC ENERGY



UNITED NATIONS

20 The First World War

1. Peace Movements — 1815-1914

A World at Peace. For 100 years after the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars, Europe had no general war. From 1815 to 1914 there were a number of conflicts, as we have seen in previous chapters. These, however, were "small" wars involving two or three of the major powers, but not all of them. During this century attempts were made to make this a peaceful world.

The Powers Try to Establish Peace. The great powers themselves led the way toward peaceful cooperation.

1. *The Congress of Berlin (1878).* This was a general conference called to settle the Balkan problem that threatened to break out into a general war. (See pages 354, 356).
2. *A Second Congress of Berlin (1884-85).* This Congress drew up rules which helped to preserve peace while the powers conquered and divided Africa among themselves.
3. *The Boxer Rebellion (1900).* Through international cooperation the Boxer Rebellion in China was put down.

International Organizations Try to Promote Peace. Many countries joined the International Red Cross, organized in 1864. Thirty countries formed a Universal Telegraph Union (1875). Many countries adopted the metric system of weights and measures (1875). Sixty nations supported a universal postal system, created in 1878. Nineteen states ratified an agreement in 1883 for the standardization of patent laws.

Many International Disputes Are Settled. England and the United States settled their disputes peacefully — the *Alabama* claims in 1871-72, the Bering Sea controversy in 1892, the Alaskan-Canadian boundary dispute in 1903. Pope Leo XIII arbitrated a colonial dispute in 1886 between Germany and Spain. Chile and Argentina had a boundary dispute that was settled by King Edward VII of England.

Organizations Formed to Keep Peace. In the 19th Century many peace societies sprang up. A federation of these societies was organized in the United States in 1824. After 1889 these organizations met regularly in international congresses, trying to solve the

problem of war. Some industrialists, many writers and other intellectuals were associated with these movements. Among these were Alfred Nobel, a Swedish scientist and capitalist, who gave much of his large fortune to promote international peace; Andrew Carnegie, who built a "temple of peace" at The Hague, and a Pan-American "palace" in Washington for the Union of American States. Baron Estournelles de Constant of France, Leo Tolstoi of Russia, Norman Angell of England and William James of the United States were only a few of the famous writers who helped promote peace.

The Hague Conferences. Those who worked for peace were alarmed by the rate at which most European countries were arming after 1875. Czar Nicholas II of Russia suggested an international meeting to discuss the problem and 26 nations met at The Hague in Holland in 1899. No agreement was reached on any general limitation of armaments, but the use of certain weapons (such as poisonous gases) was restricted; international law was codified, and a court of arbitration was set up to which nations might bring their quarrels.

In 1907 a second conference was held at The Hague, with 44 countries represented. Again the problem of the limitation of arms was not solved, but an agreement was reached requiring a formal declaration of war before fighting began. The use of force for the collection of foreign debts was restricted.

Why These Efforts Failed. Hopes for a peaceful world collapsed suddenly with the outbreak of war in 1914. The forces of nationalism, militarism and imperialism proved to be stronger than the forces of peace.

FUNDAMENTAL CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

Cause	Examples	Effects
Nationalism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. French wanted revenge, and to regain Alsace-Lorraine. 2. Serbs tried to gain a seaport. 3. Poles, Slovaks, Italians, and Croats in Austria-Hungary wanted independence or union with mother country. 4. Germans desired a "place in the sun." 	<p>Franco-German nationalist rivalry increased bitter feelings. Russia was eager to help the Balkan-Slavic peoples, and thus clashed with Austria-Hungary, whose Dual Monarchy was threatened by Balkan nationalism. Nationalism also stimulated the desire for colonies and a large standing army as signs of "great power" status.</p>

Imperialism

1. Franco-German rivalry for control in Morocco, (1904-11).
2. French-Italian rivalry for Tunisia (1881).
3. Russo-Austrian struggle for control in the Balkans.
4. Anglo-German rivalry for Middle East control.

Militarism

1. Franco-German race for leadership in size of armies.
2. Anglo-German naval rivalry (particularly after the building of the first all-steel battleship in 1906).
3. Arms building race in other countries.

Formation of Alliances

1. Triple Alliance (Italy, Germany, Austria-Hungary).
- versus
2. Triple Entente (Russia, France, England).
 3. Anglo-Japanese Alliance (1902).

International Anarchy

1. Absence of a strong international organization which could settle disputes between countries.
2. Diplomacy was in the hands of a few experts who were responsible only to their rulers and often negotiated secret treaties.
3. Distrust of nations.
4. Influence of munitions makers.

Clashes between nations for control of undeveloped areas because of raw materials or strategic location increased tension, fear and bad feelings.

By 1913 nations were racing to build up armaments. Germany increased size of her army. France lengthened term of military service. Russia, England, Sweden, Denmark and other countries increased military spending. Military groups took on a more important role in government, especially in Germany.

As Europe divided into two armed camps and went through a series of crises, it became more difficult for one or the other group to withdraw without suffering a loss of prestige.

Nations judged what was best for themselves, and war remained the only solution to their problems.

**Formation of Alliances.**

1. The Triple Alliance. The chief aim of Bismarck's foreign policy

after the Franco-Prussian War and the completion of German unification (1871) was to prevent France from taking revenge. He encouraged French colonial growth, partly to keep the French busy far from Europe, partly to let France regain prestige, and partly to weaken France by wars with other nations. He sought to isolate France through alliances.

England had long been a rival of France in India, North America and Africa, so Bismarck did not fear an English-French alliance. Italy competed with France in Tunisia. The other two major countries — Austria-Hungary and Russia — joined Germany in the *Dreikaiserbund* (League of the Three Emperors) from 1873 to 1878. The three rulers agreed to cooperate in preserving peace, and to consult with each other in case of war.

This alliance was broken by the crisis in the Balkans after Russia's victory over the Turks in 1877. The clash of interests between Austria-Hungary and Russia led Bismarck to support Austrian claims at the Congress of Berlin (1878). From this came the *Dual Alliance*, signed in 1879 between Germany and Austria-Hungary. Bismarck's choice was dictated by the fact that the ruling groups in both countries were of German nationality, and in such an alliance, Germany would dominate.

Three years later Italy, angered over French annexation of Tunis, became a partner, making it the *Triple Alliance*. The treaty provided that if any member of the alliance were attacked, the others would go to its aid. Italy thus found herself strangely allied with Austria-Hungary, from whom she was demanding the return of Italian territory ("Italia Irredenta") to complete her unification.

Bismarck still hoped to ally Russia with Germany. The assassination of Czar Alexander II in 1881, and the crowning of the new Czar, Alexander III, gave him the chance. Another Three Emperor's League (again with Austria-Hungary) was formed that year. The countries pledged to stay neutral in case of war between any one of them and a fourth power. This League lasted six years. Russia ended the agreement when Austria tried to intervene in a war between Serbia and Bulgaria. Bismarck then negotiated a secret *Re-Insurance Treaty* with Russia in 1887. This continued until Bismarck was dismissed from office in 1890, and the new Kaiser, William II, refused to renew this alliance because it violated his pledge to Austria, the enemy of Russia.

2. The Triple Entente. These moves successfully isolated France which was without an ally so long as Bismarck dominated the scene. The removal of Bismarck opened the way for a new lineup of the nations.

In 1893 France and Russia negotiated a military agreement, the *Dual Alliance*. Autocratic Russia needed French funds for indus-

trial and railroad construction, and democratic France needed an alliance.

The next step was a friendly understanding reached by France and England. The two countries had almost gone to war over their respective spheres of influence in the Sudan area of Africa (the Fashoda incident of 1898). This conflict had to be resolved because of a more important one — an Anglo-German conflict over naval supremacy, and the moral support given to the Boers by the German Emperor during the Boer War between the Dutch and English in South Africa. The result was the *Entente Cordiale* of 1904 by which French supremacy in Morocco was recognized in exchange for English free rein in Egypt. A test by Germany in the First Moroccan Crisis in 1905 only strengthened this understanding.

In 1907 Russia and England, suspicious of Germany, settled their differences in Persia, Afghanistan and China by an *Entente*. Thus, a new alliance was formed and this *Triple Entente* became stronger as the following crises shook Europe and threatened the peace of the world.

CRISES THAT THREATENED PEACE

<i>Crisis</i>	<i>Involved</i>	<i>Results</i>
First Moroccan Crisis 1905	Germany and France.	Germany challenged French position in Morocco. At the Algeiras Conference (1906) England supported France, leading to a French victory.
First Balkan Crisis 1908	Russia and Austria.	Taking advantage of the Young Turk Revolt, Austria annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina over the opposition of Serbia. Russia supported Serbia and Germany supported Austria. Russia was forced to back down. It was a victory for the Triple Alliance.
Second Moroccan Crisis 1911	Germany and France.	When France sent an army into Marocco to strengthen her control, Germany sent a warship to Agadir. This threat made England support France. Germany received some land in Africa from France in return for recognition of French supremacy in Morocco. The Entente triumphed.



<i>Crisis</i>	<i>Involved</i>	<i>Results</i>
Second Balkan Crisis 1912-13	Russia, Austria and the Balkan countries.	The Balkan countries warred with Turkey over boundaries. At an international conference to settle the dispute, Austrian pressure led to the creation of a new nation, Albania, which blocked Serbia's access to the sea. Serbia and Russia drew closer together. Turkey and Bulgaria were drawn into the Triple Alliance. The Triple Alliance had outplayed the Triple Entente in the Balkans.

These crises in Morocco and the Balkans had cost every major nation some prestige. By 1913 none of them was willing to yield again.

2. *The Immediate Causes of World War I*

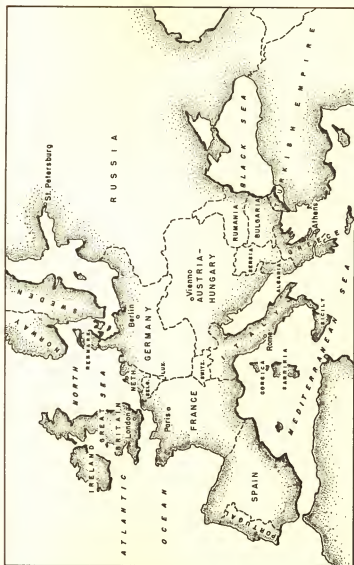
Assassination in Sarajevo. On June 28, 1914, the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Francis Ferdinand, was assassinated in the town of Sarajevo, in the Province of Bosnia, while he was inspecting military maneuvers of the Hapsburg armies. The assassin was a young member of a Serbian secret society, the "Black Hand." Subsequent investigations revealed that the society had secured its weapons and training in Serbia and had been in close touch with high officials in the Serbian army. Austria was determined once and for all to end the Serbian threat.

Austria sought German support for action against Serbia. On July 5th the German Emperor gave Austria a "blank check" — complete support without strings.

Austrian Ultimatum. On July 23rd Austria demanded that Serbia ban anti-Austrian publications and societies, dismiss anti-Austrian officials, and eliminate anti-Austrian textbooks from the Serbian schools. Serbia was to permit Austrian officials to investigate the assassination, and was to accept the ultimatum within 48 hours.

Serbia replied on July 25th accepting most of the terms, and offering to submit the others to the Hague Court. At the same time Serbia mobilized her army. Austria declared the reply unsatisfactory and on July 28th declared war on Serbia.

Russia Mobilizes. The next day Russia ordered mobilization of



EUROPE IN 1914 — BEFORE WORLD WAR I.

her armed forces. She cancelled the order the same day, but re-issued it on July 30th, after the Russian Foreign Minister had argued that this might lead to complete loss of Russian influence in the Balkans.

Germany ordered Russia to halt her mobilization. Receiving no reply, Germany declared war on Russia on August 1. Then Germany asked France what her intentions were. France replied that she would do what was to her best interest. Two days later, Germany declared war on France.

Invasion of Belgium. The nightmare that Bismarck had feared—Germany forced to fight a two-front war—had come true. The German General Staff had drawn up the *Schlieffen plan* of campaign for such a situation. This involved conquering France in six weeks and then hurling the German armies against the poorly equipped, slow-to-mobilize Russians.

Since speed was vital, Germany invaded neutral, unarmed Belgium rather than attempt to smash through the armed French border. England, directly threatened by German control of the Lowlands, came into the war on August 4th.

Thus a war that had started out as an Austro-Serbian conflict had caught up all the major powers on the Continent except Italy. Italy declared herself neutral, since the Triple Alliance was a defensive treaty and Germany had been the aggressor. Within a year, however, Italy joined the Entente Powers, when she was promised some of the Italian territories of Austria-Hungary.

The War Spread. Japan, bound by treaty to England and hoping to gain German colonies in the Pacific, declared war on Germany in August. In October Turkey joined the Central Powers (as Germany and Austria-Hungary were called). A year later Bulgaria, smarting under its humiliation of 1913, also lined up with Germany. Other Balkan states (Montenegro in 1914, Rumania in 1916, Greece in 1917) joined the Western nations. In 1917 the United States and other western hemisphere states entered the war to help the democracies—England and France. Before the war ended, about 40 nations were involved.

3. Defeat of the Central Powers

The War on the Western Front. The most important theater of the war was the Western Front—northeastern France and Belgium. The German armies overran Belgium in the opening days of the war, invaded France and pushed rapidly toward Paris. At one time they were only 15 miles from the capital. Then, in September, the French General Joffre halted the Germans at the Battle of the Marne.

For the next four years most of the fighting took place along the Western Front between the coast and the Swiss frontier. Various German and Allied drives to break enemy lines failed, particularly the Germans against Verdun, the Allies along the Somme River. Millions of lives were lost — thousands of men being killed for a few yards of territory.

United States' entry into the war with hundreds of thousands of fresh American troops enabled the Allied armies, under the unified command of the French General Foch, to halt another German offensive at the Marne. The Allies then began a drive of their own which smashed the German lines and brought the Allied troops to the German frontier. German fighting morale declined both at home and on the front, and the impact of Wilson's Fourteen Points (see pages 360-361) on the German people led to a revolt in Germany. William II fled the country and a provisional government was set up which signed an armistice on November 11, 1918.

The War on the Eastern Front. The slow-moving Russian armies invaded East Prussia to help their western allies only to be defeated at the Battle of Tannenberg by General Von Hindenburg. Russian efforts in Austria-Hungary also were defeated. One by one the Balkan states were conquered by the Central Powers.

Russian defeats in the east were caused by inadequate equipment, poor communications, and corrupt and inefficient leadership. These defeats, plus food shortages at home, created much discontent and led to revolts against the Czar. The Czarist government was overthrown in March, 1917.

For the next six months a democratic government tried to keep Russia in the war and exert pressure on Germany from the east. The Communist revolution in November overthrew this government and the new government signed a treaty with Germany (the *Treaty of Brest-Litovsk*) in March, 1918. Under it, Russia lost huge slices of territory in the Ukraine, Finland and the Baltic provinces, and withdrew from the war. This permitted the Germans to send their eastern armies against the West in a last great offensive.

The Italian Front. Italy joined the Western allies in 1915. Her efforts against the Austro-Hungarian armies ended in defeat at Caporetto. But the Dual Monarchy found itself unable to hold northern Italy. The Italian forces were reorganized and in 1918 began a campaign that finally led to victory.

War on Other Fronts. An Allied offensive against Constantinople in 1915 failed badly. In 1917 an English army conquered the Near Eastern provinces of the Turkish Empire (Palestine, Arabia, Iraq and Syria). In the Far East Japan seized German possessions in China and the Pacific islands.

Naval Warfare. Naval power did not play an important part in the First World War. The German navy remained at its base in Kiel for the greater part of the war, except when it came out to meet the British ships at the indecisive Battle of Jutland in 1916. The British blockade of the Central Powers was very effective. German submarines and raider ships sank many Allied cargo vessels but were unable to break the blockade or starve England into surrender.

New Weapons. A new stationary type of warfare appeared – trench warfare. Men lived in trenches and fought for yards of territory. New and deadly weapons appeared: the tank, poison gas, the Zeppelin, the machine gun, barbed wire, the long-range cannon capable of firing shells 75 miles, the submarine and the airplane which was used mainly for reconnaissance.

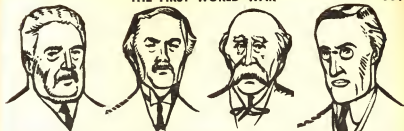
American Entrance into the War (1917). When the European war broke out, President Woodrow Wilson declared that America would remain neutral. War orders from the Western countries made American industry and agriculture boom. However, American relations with the Allied countries were disturbed by: (1) the seizure of American cargoes which were thought to be headed for Germany (the English paid for such seizures); (2) the opening of American mails in search of war information; (3) the extension of the contraband list by the English. (Contraband is any product that may be used for war purposes such as guns, ammunition, etc.)

But these irritations were minor compared to the more serious disputes with Germany which finally led Wilson to ask Congress for a declaration of war in April, 1917. They were:

1. The German policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, which cost American lives and sank American ships.
2. Allied propaganda in the United States reporting German atrocities.
3. German sabotage attempts to blow up munition factories, bridges and tunnels in America.
4. German efforts to involve Mexico in a war with the United States (the Zimmerman note of 1917).
5. American financial interest in an Allied victory. American banks had made heavy loans to the Allies.
6. American democratic idealism opposed to German autocracy, and Wilson's slogan – "the world must be made safe for democracy."

Wilson's Fourteen Points. On January 8, 1918, President Wilson outlined in a speech to Congress the famous *Fourteen Points* on which he thought peace and a stable world could be based.

1. Open treaties among nations, openly arrived at;



THE BIG FOUR OF THE PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE. These were the statesmen of the four major powers who carved out the Versailles Peace Treaty. Orlando, Italian premier, Lloyd George, British prime minister, Clemenceau, "the Tiger," and Wilson.

2. freedom of the seas;
3. removal of economic barriers to trade;
4. reduction of armaments;
5. adjustment of colonial claims in the interest of the natives;
6. withdrawal of foreign troops from Russian soil;
7. establishment of an independent Poland;
8. restoration of Belgium;
9. return of Alsace-Lorraine to France;
10. the right of Turkey's subject nationalities to be free;
11. the right of the subject peoples of the Austro-Hungarian Empire to be free;
12. withdrawal of troops from Rumania, Montenegro and Serbia, with Serbia to get access to the sea;
13. the changing of Italian frontiers in accordance with the principle of nationality;
14. establishment of a League of Nations to maintain peace.

These American war aims came into conflict with a number of secret treaties which the Western countries had signed among themselves during the war, dividing up the territory to be taken from the Central Powers. The final treaty of peace was a compromise between these rival programs.

4. *The Peace Treaties*

The "Big Four." Representatives of 32 nations met at Versailles, France, in January, 1919, to draw up the treaties ending the war with the Central Powers. The work was done by committees of specialists in secret sessions. They passed their decisions on to the "Big Four" of the Conference for final approval: Woodrow Wilson, representing the United States, David Lloyd George of England, Georges Clemenceau of France and Vittorio Orlando of Italy. Each of these had different views.

Lloyd George was intent upon making Germany pay for the war, and removing the German threat to England's naval and indus-

trial supremacy. Clemenceau wanted to punish Germany severely so that she could never attack France again. Orlando was interested in territorial and colonial acquisitions. Wilson, the idealist, desired nothing for his country, but was determined to create a peaceful world. The Treaty of Versailles was created out of these conflicting objectives.

Wilson was forced to sacrifice many of his Fourteen Points to secure agreement among the Allies. However, he felt that the League of Nations, which became a part of the peace treaty, would insure his most important goal — a peaceful world.

PROVISIONS OF THE VERSAILLES TREATY

Clause	Provision
Territorial	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Alsace-Lorraine returned to France. 2. Eupen and Malmédy ceded to Belgium. 3. Northern Schleswig turned over to Denmark. 4. Posen, West Prussia, and part of upper Silesia (the "Polish Corridor") given to the new republic of Poland. 5. Danzig made a "free city." 6. The Saar Basin transferred to the League of Nations for 15 years, with its coal mines to be operated by France; in 1935 a plebiscite was to determine its future status. 7. German colonial possessions in Africa and the Pacific given as mandates to England, France, Japan and the British dominions.
Military	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. German army limited to 100,000. 2. Conscription abolished, and a 12-year term of service required for all volunteers. 3. Rhineland demilitarized. Allied army to occupy the Rhineland for 15 years. 4. Manufacture of war material banned. 5. Submarines and military airplanes banned. 6. German navy limited in size.
Economic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Germany required to pay indemnities for all damages. The total, set at a 1920 conference, was \$33 billions.
War guilt	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Germany completely blamed for the war.

Break-up of the Dual Monarchy. Separate treaties were signed with Austria and Hungary after the Versailles conference. Under the *Treaty of St. Germain* with Austria (1919) and the *Treaty of Trianon* with Hungary (1920):

1. Austria and Hungary were made separate states.
2. Territory was ceded by the two countries to the newly-formed states of Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia.
3. Italy was given "Italia Irredenta" (the Italian peninsula).

4. Rumania received a large area, doubling its size.
5. Both Austria and Hungary were demilitarized.
6. Austria was prohibited from merging with Germany (Anschluss).

Bulgarian Treaty. The *Treaty of Neuilly* with Bulgaria (1919) ceded territory to Rumania, Yugoslavia and Greece; set reparations of almost half a billion dollars, and reduced Bulgaria's army to 35,000 men.

Turkish Treaty. The *Treaty of Sèvres* (1920) forced Turkey to give up her territorial claims on Egypt and the Sudan; transferred control of Palestine, Transjordan, Iraq, Syria and Lebanon to the League of Nations; recognized the independence of Arabia; provided for the demilitarization of the Dardanelles; and assigned Turkish territory in Europe and Asia Minor to Greece.

Turkish nationalists denounced these provisions. Led by Mustafa Kemal, they overthrew the Turkish Sultan, defeated the Greeks and secured a revision of the Treaty of Sèvres. By the new *Treaty of Lausanne* (1923) Turkey regained control over the Dardanelles and recovered the territory that Greece had been promised — some 300,000 square miles and 13 million people. But she lost her other possessions.

Rejection of the Versailles Treaty by the American Senate. After the Versailles Treaty had been drawn up President Wilson returned to the United States and submitted it to the American Senate for ratification, as required by the Constitution. After bitter debate the Senate, which had a Republican majority, refused to accept the treaty by the necessary two-thirds vote. Among the reasons for its rejection were:

1. The treaty was too harsh on Germany.
2. Accepting the treaty would make the United States automatically a member of the League of Nations, to which many of the Senators were opposed. They declared that it would:
 - a. destroy the Monroe Doctrine — for the League could interfere in Latin American relations;
 - b. mean the end of traditional American isolation from European entanglements;
 - c. deprive the American Congress of the right to declare war by forcing it to send American troops to any part of the world;
 - d. give Britain six votes to one for the United States — for the six Dominions of the Empire each had a vote.

The rejection of the Treaty dealt a severe blow to hopes for a strong world organization. With America refusing to join, and Russia and the Central Powers not permitted to, the League started with handicaps that it could never overcome.

5. *Results of the War*

Political

1. Nationalism triumphed in the creation of many new independent states—Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia.
2. Democracy spread, with woman suffrage granted in England and the United States, and constitutional republics created in many of the new countries.
3. Autocratic empires were broken up—the Turkish Empire, and those of the Hapsburgs in Austria-Hungary, the Romanovs in Russia, the Hohenzollerns in Germany.
4. New minority problems were created—Germans were governed by Czechoslovakia, Hungarians by Rumania, Yugoslavs by Italy. These sore spots created new ill-feeling.
5. The United States emerged as an important world power, but her rejection of the Treaty of Versailles and her unwillingness to join the League of Nations weakened peace efforts.
6. Dictatorships were established in Poland, Hungary, Russia, Italy and later Germany where efforts to solve postwar problems by democratic means failed.
7. The peace movement was stimulated through the creation of the League of Nations and the World Court but these organizations failed to maintain peace.
8. Dissatisfaction of many nations with the treaties, even the victorious ones like France and Italy, and particularly the defeated ones, like Germany.

Economic

1. Severe war damages required heavy taxes to pay for the recovery of European nations.
2. German reparations created problems not only for Germany, but also for the Allies, who needed German payments to help pay war debts owed to the United States.
3. Creation of new states increased tariff barriers, with consequent upset of world trade.
4. Postwar depression of 1918-20 created much distress and unemployment.
5. The economic life of countries, under government control during the war, helped to promote the idea of collectivism.

Social

1. Loss of life was very high. Nearly 9 million soldiers were killed, and 29 million more wounded, captured or reported missing. Millions of civilians died, too, as a result of the hostilities and of hunger and disease.

2. New rivalries and hatreds were created, and old enmities aggravated.
3. Hunger, disease, revolution and warfare did not end.

6. *The Search for Peace — 1919-1939 — The League of Nations*

The People Want Peace. The violence and bloodshed of World War I quickened the desire of peoples and nations for an era of peace. President Wilson, in his Fourteen Points, provided for the creation of a League of Nations.

At Wilson's insistence the Covenant of the League of Nations was made a part of every major treaty drawn up by the Paris Conference. All countries who signed the peace treaties (except the defeated nations) automatically became members of the League, and any other nation whose admission was approved by two-thirds of the member states could join. The League held its first meeting at Geneva, Switzerland, in 1920.

Purposes of the League. Its purposes, as stated in the Covenant, were: (1) to promote international cooperation in the solution of common problems, and (2) to try to reduce armaments; to supervise plebiscites in Silesia and other areas, administer the City of Danzig, govern the Saar, and protect minority rights in the defeated countries.

Organization of the League. The League of Nations consisted of:

1. The *Assembly*, composed of representatives of the member states, each with one vote, meeting annually to deal with any problem affecting the peace of the world.
2. The *Council*, consisting originally of four permanent members (France, England, Italy and Japan) and four non-permanent members. Germany became a fifth permanent member in 1926, but Germany and Japan withdrew from the League in 1933, and Italy in 1937. Russia was added in 1934 and expelled in 1939. The non-permanent members were increased to six, and then to nine. Each member had one vote. The Council met three times a year, investigated threats to peace and carried out Assembly recommendations.
3. The *Secretariat*, headed by a Secretary General chosen by the Council. Its functions were to carry on League correspondence, direct research work and publish reports.
4. Various commissions assisted the League in its social and economic activities:
 - a. The *International Health Organization* fought disease and epidemics, carried on medical research and public health programs.

- b. The *International Labor Organization* improved workers' conditions through social insurance, child labor regulations, hours of work, etc., and published labor statistics.
- c. The *Mandates Commission* supervised the territories assigned to various countries after 1919.
5. The *World Court*, consisting of 15 judges chosen by the League of Nations to hear cases involving international law or boundary disputes.

The League Seeks Ways to Prevent War. The most important purpose of the League was to prevent war and preserve peace. The member states promised to respect the territorial integrity and political independence of all countries. The League could use economic sanctions against a state that had committed aggression. If such steps did not succeed, the Council could recommend the use of military force by League members against the offending country. The League could only *recommend* this final step; it was up to the individual nations to adopt the suggestion.

The League also tried to prevent war by the settlement of disputes through the World Court. It required the publication of all treaties by the Secretariat to prevent secret treaties. It tried to reduce armaments.

The League Settles Many Disputes. The League settled many controversies over boundaries, and arbitrated other threats of war between the smaller nations. These included:

1. The dispute between Finland and Sweden over the Åland Islands in 1921 — given to Finland but were made neutral.
2. The dispute between Germany and Poland over territory in Silesia. In 1921 the Council gave Germany most of the territory.
3. The threat of fighting between Yugoslavia and Albania over disputed boundaries in 1921.
4. The Corfu crisis (1923) between Greece and Italy, which the League halted by securing Greek payment for the murder of Italian officials on Corfu.
5. The frontier dispute between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925.
6. The dispute between Iraq and Turkey in 1926 over the oil fields of Mosul.

Other League Successes. Through its Health and Labor Organizations, the League of Nations improved people's health and working conditions. It gave loans to Austria, Hungary, and Greece. It attempted to control the production and sale of opium throughout the world. It tried to bring about the reduction of armaments.

Why the League Failed. The League of Nations was less successful in settling disputes involving the big countries. When Japan in-

vaded Manchuria in 1931, and China protested to the League, the Lytton Commission asked Japan to withdraw. Japan refused and, in 1931, withdrew from the League. In October 1933, Germany withdrew from the League and began to rearm. The League voted economic sanctions against Italy when she invaded Ethiopia in 1935, but they were ineffective. In 1936 Italy annexed Ethiopia. Also in 1936, Germany, rearmed and remilitarized, reoccupied the Rhineland in violation of the Versailles and Locarno treaties. Though the League protested, nothing further was done. Germany's annexation of Austria in 1938 went unpunished and the League did not act in the Spanish Civil War (1936), and the "undeclared" war between Japan and China (1937).

This inability of the League to halt aggressions of big countries was one of the weaknesses that led to its breakup in 1946. Other reasons for its failure were:

1. Powerful countries were not members. The United States did not join. Russia did not become a member until 1934, and remained only for five years. Japan and Germany withdrew in 1933, and Italy in 1937.
2. The unwillingness of nations to give up their ambitions or antagonisms. Tariff rivalries continued. Countries refused to risk lives and money in Manchuria, Ethiopia or Czechoslovakia.
3. The League was unable to prevent war without a means of enforcement.

Post-War Peace Pacts. A number of agreements were signed during this period to secure a peaceful world.



TRENCH WARFARE CHARACTERIZED WORLD WAR I. Soldiers of opposing armies dug trenches and held these positions as long as they could. An attack on trench positions was preceded by heavy shelling followed by hand-to-hand fighting. In between the trench positions was a "no-man's land" — to enter this area was certain death.

Treaty	Provisions
Geneva Protocol (1924)	Provided that disputes must be submitted to the World Court. Economic or military action could be taken against a country that refused. It was opposed by Britain and was not adopted.
Locarno Treaty (1925)	Germany recognized her western boundaries as permanent, agreed to revise her eastern boundaries and joined the League.
Kellogg-Briand Pact (Pact of Paris) (1928)	The United States, France, England, Japan, Italy and more than 60 other nations agreed not to go to war to solve their problems. It proved weak; it lacked enforcement provisions.

Attempts Are Made to Disarm the Powers. Both the Fourteen Points and the Covenant of the League mentioned the need for disarmament in the preservation of peace. A number of steps were taken in this direction.

Conference	Accomplishments
Washington Naval Conference (1921-22)	A five-power treaty limited capital ships (over 10,000 tons) in a ratio of 5:5:3:1.67:1.67 for the United States, England, Japan, France and Italy. No new battleships were to be built for 10 years. The use of poison gases, and submarines as commerce destroyers, was outlawed.
London Naval Conference (1930)	It continued the battleship building "holiday" until 1936, extended naval ratios of 10:10:7 to cruisers and destroyers. It provided an "escalator" clause — any nation could increase its navy if its security required it. Italy and France, differing over naval superiority in the Mediterranean, did not sign.
Geneva Disarmament Conference (1932)	Germany demanded that other nations reduce their armaments or she would rearm. National fears created disagreements. Germany withdrew from the Conference.
London Naval Conference (1935)	Japan demanded naval equality with the United States and England. This was rejected, the conference failed, and Japan began to build up her navy. Other countries followed suit.

American Foreign Policy Between Wars—1919-1939. The United States followed contradictory foreign policies. Isolationism was still a strong force in the country. On the other hand, it adopted international programs.

<i>Isolationist Steps</i>	<i>Internationalist Moves</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Rejected the Treaty of Versailles and refused to join the League of Nations, 1919. 2. Refused to join the World Court, 1922, 1927, 1935. 3. Adopted high tariff policies, 1922, 1929. 4. Adopted restrictive immigration policies, 1922, 1929. 5. Neutrality legislation, 1935, 1937. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Joined the International Labor Organization, 1934. 2. Agreed to naval disarmament at Washington and London Naval Conferences, 1922, 1930. 3. Originated the Kellogg-Briand Pact of Paris, 1928. 4. Supported the League of Nations in the Manchurian crisis of 1932 by issuance of the Stimson Doctrine.

Why the Peace Movement Failed. By 1939 the nations of Europe were again heading toward war. The efforts of statesmen to fulfill the hopes of Woodrow Wilson and other idealists after 1919 had failed, because:

1. The League of Nations was unable to eliminate rivalries.
2. The aggression of Germany in Austria, Italy in Ethiopia and Japan in China went unpunished.
3. The challenges of economic and political imperialism continued.
4. Dictators rose in Russia, Germany and Italy, and democracy failed to achieve a lasting hold on their peoples.
5. The armaments race by Japan in naval, and Germany in land power was renewed.
6. The creation of a power bloc of nations, the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis, spurred ambitions that could only be satisfied by war.
7. Major powers — England and France in particular — sought immediate gains rather than long-term internationalism.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. All of the following are among the causes of the First World War except (a) the assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, (b) the problem of the Polish Corridor, (c) the Morocco crisis, (d) Russian mobilization.



2. The United States entered the First World War for all of the following reasons *except* (a) the threatened defeat of the Allies, (b) unrestricted submarine warfare, (c) territorial ambitions of the United States, (d) activities of foreign agents in the United States. 2.
3. A nation that became independent after World War I was (a) Belgian Congo, (b) Hungary, (c) Japan, (d) Norway. 3.
4. The Fourteen Points were proposed as a basis for the peace settlement after (a) the Napoleonic Wars, (b) the Thirty Years' Wars, (c) World War I, (d) World War II. 4.
5. As a Swedish inventor and industrialist, I made a great fortune from which a series of prizes are awarded every year to those who contribute to peace, literature, and sciences. I am (a) Charles Dickens, (b) Alfred Nobel, (c) Henrik Ibsen, (d) Edvard Grieg. 5.
6. A result of World War I was the (a) creation of the Republic of Indonesia, (b) establishment of an independent Czechoslovakia, (c) return to Germany of its colonies, (d) union of Norway and Sweden. 6.
7. Which provision of the Treaty of Versailles violated the principle of nationalism? (a) the transfer of Alsace-Lorraine to France, (b) the granting of the Polish Corridor to Poland, (c) the separation of Finland from Soviet Russia, (d) the granting of independence to Estonia. 7.
8. The Hohenzollerns, the Hapsburgs and the Romanoffs lost their thrones as a result of (a) the French Revolution, (b) the Franco-Prussian War, (c) World War I, (d) World War II. 8.
9. Before the First World War Serbia tried to stop the expansion of (a) Russia, (b) France, (c) Austria-Hungary, (d) Great Britain. 9.
10. Serbia's desire to acquire an outlet to the sea was supported by (a) Albania, (b) Austria-Hungary, (c) Russia, (d) Italy. 10.
11. A country that was *not* a member of the Triple Entente was (a) England, (b) France, (c) Italy, (d) Russia. 11.
12. The nation that acquired no land as a result of World War I was (a) England, (b) the United States, (c) France, (d) Italy. 12.
13. The incident which led to the Entente Cordiale was the (a) Tangier Incident, (b) the Jameson Raid, (c) Panther Affair, (d) Fashoda Affair. 13.
14. When Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia in 1908 it was a severe blow to the hopes of (a) Germany, (b) France, (c) Serbia, (d) Russia. 14.
15. Italy joined the Triple Alliance because (a) Germany had helped her in the Austro-Sardinian War, (b) she objected to France's seizure of Tunis, (c) she was a bitter enemy of Russia, (d) she was promised territory by Germany. 15.
16. An important goal of Bismarck's foreign policy after 1871 was to (a) isolate France, (b) acquire overseas colonies, (c) achieve naval equality with England, (d) conquer Austria-Hungary. 16.

17. The country whose neutrality was violated by Germany during World War I was (a) Holland, (b) Switzerland, (c) Belgium, (d) Denmark. 17.
18. A major weakness of the Hague Tribunal was that (a) its judges received no pay, (b) there was no compulsory arbitration of disputes provided, (c) it was a permanent body of judges, (d) it created a disarmament commission with no powers of enforcement. 18.
19. Imperialist rivalry among the great powers before 1914 included all of the following *except* (a) the Berlin to Bagdad Railroad, (b) control of Morocco, (c) control of the Suez Canal, (d) expansion in the Balkans. 19.
20. The Re-Insurance Treaty of 1887 was negotiated to (a) prevent Austria-Hungary from going to war with Russia, (b) make Russia an ally of Germany, (c) help England gain control of Suez, (d) allay Austria-Hungary's suspicions of Russia. 20.
21. France's diplomatic isolation ended when she became an ally of (a) Russia, (b) England, (c) Italy, (d) Turkey. 21.
22. The Entente Cordiale recognized (a) French supremacy in Morocco, (b) English supremacy in Egypt, (c) a drawing together of England and France, (d) all of these. 22.
23. The Balkan crisis of the early 20th Century involved basically the conflicting ambitions of Austria-Hungary and (a) Turkey (b) Greece, (c) Russia, (d) France. 23.
24. Sarajevo was the scene of the (a) signing of the armistice in 1918, (b) assassination of the Austrian heir to the throne, (c) military defeat of Russia by Germany, (d) Russo-German peace treaty of 1918. 24.
25. Tannenberg and Caporetto were (a) major victories of the Central Powers in World War I, (b) major defeats of the Central Powers in World War I, (c) generals on the German staff in 1914, (d) Serbian ports on the Mediterranean. 25.
26. The Big Four at the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 included all of the following *except* (a) Lloyd George, (b) Vittorio Orlando, (c) Warren G. Harding, (d) Georges Clemenceau. 26.
27. The American Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles because (a) it was too lenient on Germany, (b) it would end the isolationism of the United States, (c) the United States did not receive any territory as a victor, (d) Woodrow Wilson had violated the American Constitution in negotiating it. 27.
28. The members of the Entente Cordiale formed in 1904 were France and (a) Italy, (b) Russia, (c) Germany, (d) England. 28.
29. Italy joined the Western countries in World War I because (a) Germany attacked her, (b) she was promised Austrian-held territory by the Allies, (c) the Italian socialists demanded Italian participation in the war, (d) England threatened to attack her. 29.
30. Serbia's aggressive nationalism was considered a threat by (a) Russia, (b) Austria-Hungary, (c) France, (d) Turkey. 30.

31. The Washington Conference of 1921-22 (a) limited the size of the 5 leading navies, (b) declared a holiday on battleship building for 10 years, (c) outlawed the use of poison gases, (d) included all of these. 31.
32. The League of Nations was established immediately following (a) the Thirty Years' War, (b) the Crimean War, (c) World War I, (d) World War II. 32.
33. All of the following were accomplishments of the League of Nations *except* (a) creation of a World Court, (b) formation of the International Labor Organization, (c) settlement of the dispute between Finland and Sweden over the Aaland Islands, (d) settlement of the Manchurian crisis. 33.
34. A country that never joined the League of Nations was (a) Japan, (b) the United States, (c) Russia, (d) France. 34.
35. The League of Nations (a) made war between countries illegal, (b) provided for the admission of new members, (c) consisted of all the major powers that had taken part in World War I, (d) successfully limited armaments among the nations of the world. 35.
36. Germany's violations of the Treaty of Versailles included all of the following *except* (a) rearmament, (b) remilitarization of the Rhineland, (c) anschluss with Austria, (d) regaining her colonies in Africa. 36.
37. All of the following countries withdrew from League membership in the 1930's *except* (a) Japan, (b) France, (c) Italy, (d) Germany. 37.
38. The Locarno Treaties of 1925 (a) brought Germany into the League of Nations, (b) recognized the western frontiers of Germany as permanent, (c) provided for the peaceful revision of Germany's eastern frontiers, (d) included all of these. 38.
39. The Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928 recommended (a) naval disarmament, (b) land disarmament, (c) outlawing war, (d) renunciation of Allied war debts. 39.
40. A nation which does not give aid to either side in a controversy is said to be (a) an aggressor, (b) a belligerent, (c) a neutral, (d) an appeaser. 40.
41. The major weakness of the Pact of Paris was (a) the United States refused to sign it, (b) it provided for no enforcement methods, (c) the League of Nations rejected it, (d) many countries did not sign it. 41.
42. Organs of the League of Nations included all of the following *except* (a) World Court, (b) Secretariat, (c) Economic and Social Council, (d) General Assembly. 42.
43. American foreign policy after World War I was marked by a (a) return to low tariffs, (b) liberal immigration policy, (c) membership in the World Court, (d) return to isolationism. 43.
44. When Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935 (a) the League voted economic sanctions against the aggressor, (b) France and England supported Italian action, (c) the dispute was submitted to the World Court, (d) the League refused to take any action. 44.

45. The Japanese invasion of Manchuria led to (a) an investigation of the dispute by the League of Nations, (b) Japanese withdrawal from the League, (c) American support of League action, (d) all of these events. 45.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

1. Members of the Triple Entente: (a) England, (b) France, (c) Italy, (d) Russia.
2. International organizations created before 1914: (a) League of Nations, (b) Universal Postal Union, (c) International Red Cross, (d) Universal Telegraph Union.
3. Pacifist writers: (a) Norman Angell, (b) William James, (c) Leo Tolstoi, (d) Charles Dickens.
4. Hague Conferences: (a) agreement to limit armaments, (b) restrictions on the use of poison gases in wartime, (c) establishment of a court of arbitration, (d) beginnings of codification of international law.
5. European territories lost by Germany in 1919: (a) Alsace-Lorraine, (b) East Prussia, (c) West Prussia, (d) Northern Schleswig.
6. States created in whole or in part from Austria-Hungary: (a) Yugoslavia, (b) Czechoslovakia, (c) Poland, (d) Bulgaria.
7. Imperialist disputes before 1914: (a) France and Germany over Morocco, (b) Italy and Germany over Morocco, (c) France and Italy over Tunisia, (d) England and Germany over the Berlin to Bagdad Railway.
8. Members of the Dreikaiserbund: (a) England, (b) Germany, (c) Austria-Hungary, (d) Russia.
9. Reasons for American entrance into World War I: (a) German submarine warfare, (b) German sabotage activities in the United States, (c) German efforts to invade the United States, (d) the Zimmerman Note.
10. Treaties of Peace of 1919: (a) Versailles, (b) Trianon, (c) St. Germain, (d) Brest-Litovsk.

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

- 1. France's diplomatic isolation ended in 1894 when she signed an alliance with
- 2. The Fashoda affair led to an agreement between England and France known as the
- 3. The Conference of 1906 settled the claims of France and Germany in Morocco.
- 4. The First Hague Conference was called on the initiative of

- 5. The seizure of Tunis by France led to join and form the Triple Alliance.
- 6. The railroad planned by Germany was to run from Berlin to
- 7. The invasion of Belgium by Germany led to the entrance of into World War I.
- 8. The collapse and withdrawal of from the war in 1917 seriously endangered the Western allies.
- 9. By the Treaty of Versailles France regained the territory of
- 10. Wilson's statement of war aims was known as
- 11. Austria-Hungary annexed in 1908, ending Serbia's hopes for a seaport.
- 12. The state of was created in 1913 by international action, again blocking Serbia's drive to the sea.
- 13. The immediate cause of the First World War was the
- 14. Germany's military plan to defeat both Russia and France within a few months was known as the
- 15. Italy gained the territory known as after World War I.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

I

- 1. Kellogg-Briand Pact
- 2. Washington Naval Conference
- 3. Locarno Treaty
- 4. Geneva Protocol
- 5. Geneva Disarmament Conference
- 6. Lytton Commission
- 7. Mandates Commission
- 8. Article X of the League Covenant
- 9. economic sanctions
- 10. London Naval Conference of 1930

II

- a. entrance of Germany into League
- b. supervised former colonies of defeated countries after World War I
- c. led to German withdrawal from League
- d. outlawed war
- e. created a new naval ratio among the three leading naval powers
- f. provided for compulsory submission of disputes to World Court
- g. American membership in League
- h. respected territorial and political independence of subject states.
- i. limited capital ships
- j. voted in the Italo-Ethiopian dispute
- k. investigated the Japanese invasion of Manchuria

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. (a) List three important factors that were causes of the First World War. (b) State three problems created by the peace treaties after 1919.
2. "It is easier to begin a war than to end it. It is easier to end a war than to make a peace and maintain it." (a) Prove the truth or falsity of the first sentence by considering in detail the causes of the First World War. (b) Prove the truth or falsity of the second sentence by considering the treaties ending the First World War.
3. (a) Describe the steps in the formation of the Triple Alliance and Triple Entente. (b) Discuss the balance of power theory and explain why this theory did not prevent World War I.
4. Show how the economic and naval rivalry between Germany and England was an important contributing factor to the outbreak of war in 1914.
5. (a) Why did Italy join the Austro-German alliance in 1882? (b) Why did Italy refuse to support the Triple Alliance in 1914? (c) How did the Treaty of Versailles complete Italian unification?
6. (a) Why were the Hague Conferences called? (b) What did they accomplish?
7. (a) Show why the Treaty of Versailles was regarded as a punitive treaty by many people. (b) Why was Wilson willing to sacrifice some of his Fourteen Points in the negotiation of this treaty?
8. Discuss three reasons why the American Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles.
9. List and describe four important results of the First World War.
10. Compare the Congress of Vienna with the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 in each of the following respects: (a) treatment of conquered countries, (b) principles on which the conferences based their work, (c) treatment of Poland.
11. Show how each of three of the following helped or hindered the peace movement from 1919 to 1939: (a) Washington Conference of 1921-22, (b) Kellogg-Briand Pact, (c) Italian invasion of Ethiopia, (d) German occupation of the Rhineland, (e) American neutrality legislation of the 1930's.
12. What, in your opinion, were the basic weaknesses of the League of Nations?
13. Discuss the truth or falsity of each of three of the following statements: (a) The League of Nations was interested in social and economic problems. (b) The United States was right in not joining the League of Nations. (c) The League of Nations could have prevented World War II. (d) Disarmament is not easy to secure.
14. (a) Describe three efforts of the League of Nations to prevent war. (b) Discuss two conflicts that weakened the League.
15. (a) What justification did Italy and Japan offer for their invasion of Ethiopia and Manchuria? (b) Compare these motives with those of the imperialist powers before 1914.



Post-War Dictatorships

1. The Communist Dictatorship In Russia

First Russian Revolution of 1917. The failure of the Russian Revolution of 1905 to end the severe, autocratic government, political oppression and economic distress led to the break-up of reform groups. On the surface, Russia appeared to be calm and under the control of the Czar as she entered the first World War.

However, the inefficiency and corruption of the government led to disaster. Inadequate supplies and poor equipment caused military defeat. Rasputin exercised an unholy influence on the Czarina and through her on the Czar. Food shortages, peasant riots and workers' strikes spread through Russia in 1916 and early 1917.

Revolution began in March, 1917, when soldiers refused to fire on striking workers, the Duma declined to go home, and the soldiers and workers formed a soviet (council). The Czar realized that the army, government officials, workers and the peasants were opposed to his continued rule. He abdicated on March 15th.

Prince George Lvov became the head of a provisional government. Civil liberties were immediately proclaimed, thousands of political prisoners were freed, the ban on political exiles was removed, and plans were made for the election of an assembly. Finland was given self-government, and Russian efforts in the war were stepped up.

This democratic government did not last long. The people were definitely anti-war. Lvov was forced to resign, and Alexander Kerensky, a moderate Socialist, became head of a temporary government. He too lost popular support. A Russian offensive against the Austrians and Germans in July, 1917, failed. Russian troops mutinied. The peasants were not satisfied with attempts to adjust the land problem. Workers faced continued food shortages. Propaganda activities of the Communists increased.

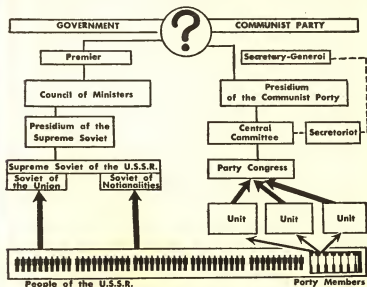
Second Revolution of 1917. When the war broke out, Bolshevik leaders, V. Lenin and Leon Trotsky, were in exile. From abroad, they campaigned against the Czarist government. With German help, Lenin returned to Russia in April, 1917. The Bolsheviks gained control of the St. Petersburg soviet of workers and soldiers, then of others in the large cities, and threw out the Kerensky government in November. Under the leadership of Lenin, they established a strong, highly centralized dictatorship.

Bolsheviks Secure Popular Support. Lenin's program was calculated to enlist popular support. The slogan of his party was "Peace,

Land, Bread." For the workers, he seized private factories, made them government institutions with shop committees of workers in control of production, purchase and sales. For the peasants, he nationalized the land, with peasant committees in charge of its division and use. For the soldiers, he took Russia out of the war. (By the *Treaty of Brest-Litovsk* with the Central Powers, Russia lost the Baltic, Polish and Ukrainian provinces.) The property of the Greek Orthodox Church was taken over by the government. Titles and privileges of the nobility were ended.

End of Opposition. Lenin denounced the elected Assembly in which the Bolsheviks secured less than a quarter of the seats, and his soldiers broke it up. The Bolsheviks (or Communists) as they were then called, ended all opposition to their rule. Nobles, capitalists, army officers and clergymen were executed. The Czar, his wife and children were killed in July, 1918. A reign of terror started which won over political opponents or frightened them into silence. Thousands were killed and other thousands fled the country.

The Allies, angered at Lenin's dictatorship, his withdrawal of Russia from the war, his repudiation of Russia's foreign debts, and



THE COMMUNIST PARTY RULES RUSSIA. The Premier of Russia also controls the Communist Party through its Presidium, the policy-making body. Because the struggle for power is always going on, it is difficult to say how long Russia's leaders will last. That is why there is a question mark where the face of the leader should be. (Each dark figure = 4,000,000; each light figure = 1,000,000 Communist Party members.)

his preaching of world-wide Communist Revolution, sent in armies to help to overthrow him. Various Russian generals collected "white" armies to fight the "red" soldiers. This civil war lasted for two years. In the end, the Communists won absolute power in Russia. One by one the countries of Europe recognized this fact—Germany in 1922; Britain, France and Italy in 1924; the United States in 1934.

2. *The Government of Russia*

The U.S.S.R. Russia is a Union of 15 Soviet Socialist Republics. In theory, the Russian people enjoy many democratic practices (universal suffrage for all over 18 years of age, elected legislatures, a written constitution containing a Bill of Rights). In actual practice these rights are ignored by the government which is a highly centralized dictatorship dominated by a small group that maintains power by force (both hidden and open)

The Legislature. The *Supreme Soviet* is theoretically the chief law-making body. It consists of:

1. The upper house, the *Council of Nationalities*—639 representatives from the republics and national groups.
2. The lower house, or *Council of the Union*—708 members on a nation-wide basis.

Actually the Legislature has little power. It meets briefly twice a year to approve the laws that the Praesidium and the Council of Ministers make. Eighty-five percent of the members of the Supreme Soviet are members of the Communist Party. All votes are unanimous.

The Executive. When the Supreme Soviet is not in session, the power of government is in the hands of the Praesidium. The highest executive power is exercised by the Council of Ministers headed by a Premier. It issues orders and supervises their enforcement. Every Minister is a member of the Communist Party.

The Courts. In Russia, each republic has a system of three courts:

1. The *People's court*—its judges are elected by the council of the area it serves to handle minor criminal and civil cases.
2. The *Regional court*—a court of appeal from the people's courts to handle more important civil and criminal cases.
3. The *Supreme Court*—it hears appeals from the lower courts and tries important cases.

The Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R. is the highest court in Russia. It hears appeals from the Supreme Courts of the Republics. It cannot declare unconstitutional any law of the Supreme Soviet or the Council of Ministers.

Since the Russian courts are not elected by the people, but by

the local legislatures or by the Supreme Soviet, the judges are under the control of the government. In Russia, this means the Communist Party.

The Secret Police. The secret police of Russia, known now as the M.V.D., occupies an important position in the enforcement of laws, the detection and elimination of all opponents to the government, and the maintenance of Communist control. Its million and more members are found in factories, on the farms, in the army, in newspaper offices and in cultural organizations.

The M.V.D. has the right to arrest persons suspected of anti-government intentions and to impose the death sentence. It can exile people, and move whole groups of people from one part of Russia to another. The M.V.D. is in charge of labor camps to which many political criminals are sentenced. The number of inmates of such labor camps is estimated at about ten million. They are forced to work on hard construction projects, such as canals and uranium mines.

The Army. The army is another important support of Communist power in Russia. Under the control of the Defense Minister, 4,000,000 soldiers, drafted for a two-year term, are carefully indoctrinated with Communist propaganda.

Civil Liberties. The Soviet Bill of Rights includes most of the rights found in Western charters. It also includes such novel features as the right to work, to rest, leisure, education, and equality of women with men.

Actually these rights exist only on paper. Freedom of speech and press mean little under the strict censorship of the government. Freedom of assembly does not allow any other political party to compete with the Communist Party. The individual's freedom of person and home mean nothing when the secret police can search, seize and detain people, and even sentence them in secrecy.

3. *The Communist Party*

Membership. The only political party permitted in Russia is the Communist Party. It has about 7,250,000 members out of a total population of 205 millions. Membership in the party is very exclusive. Careful examination of a candidate's past record and that of his family is made before he is accepted. Party members are supposed to devote their time and careers to the advancement of the Party's aims. In return they get privileges such as better housing facilities, vacations at seaside resorts, tickets to ballet and other cultural activities, and above all, a chance for promotion in the

Party. From time to time, undesirable members are purged—thrown out of the Party.

Party Organization. The Praesidium is the chief executive agency of the Party. Its 15 members are appointed by the Central Committee of the Party. Its members head the secret police, the army, foreign affairs, industry, agriculture, etc. The decisions of the Praesidium must be obeyed.

Absolute Powers. The Communist Party is the *only* party. It controls the secret police and the army. Its officials, who are in charge of public opinion, determine what shall be taught; read and heard in the Soviet Union. The Party is the government, and the First Secretary of the Party has for the last 35 years been the dictator of Russia.

Changes in Party Control. The dictator has kept his power through his ability, his ruthlessness, and his control of the Party. Whenever a dictator dies, there is a struggle for power among leaders who want to be supreme. This story is told in the following chart:

RUSSIAN DICTATORS

Controlled by	Period	Event
Lenin	1917-24	Lenin overthrew the Kerensky Government and became absolute ruler. He introduced far-reaching socialist reforms.
Stalin	1924-53	For five years after Lenin's death, Trotsky and Stalin struggled for control. Their policies differed. Trotsky favored world revolution, Stalin favored revolution in one country at a time; Trotsky favored liquidation of the kulaks (rich peasants), Stalin favored leaving them alone. After Stalin wanted and exiled Trotsky (finally to Mexico, where he was assassinated in 1940) he assumed complete control over life and government in Russia. Stalin died in 1953.
Collective Leadership	1953-55	A group consisting of Beria (head of the secret police), Malenkov and Molotov (long-time Foreign Secretary) took over. Four months later (July) Beria was purged and later executed. N. S. Khrushchev became First Secretary of the Party. In February, 1955, Malenkov was demoted and replaced by Marshal Nikolai Bulganin as Premier.

Khrushchev 1955—



In February, 1956, Khrushchev attacked Stalinist policies. In July, 1957, he eliminated his chief rivals. Malenkov, Molotov, Kaganovich and others were removed from important posts and given minor jobs in Siberia or Mongolia. In October, 1957, Khrushchev ended the army's political power by removing Marshal Zhukov from his Defense Ministry post and replacing him with his own choice. In 1958 Bulganin was deposed and Khrushchev took over his position as Premier. Khrushchev then had complete power over Russia.

4. Soviet Economic Development

Period of "War Communism" (1918-1921). Immediately after they seized power, the Communists set up government ownership and operation of all production and distribution. A period of "war communism" was ordered. All foreign and domestic debts were cancelled. Committees of workers and party members managed factories and mines. The Communists printed huge quantities of paper money which led to inflation and the collapse of the currency. The government took away surplus crops from the farmers, promising to pay for them with goods from the factories. It didn't work out.

The workers could not manage the factories, and by 1920 industrial production was less than a third of pre-war levels. Agricultural production fell off because the farmers grew only what they needed for themselves. The railroad system broke down because needed repairs could not be made without skilled workers and machines. The result was a serious famine. Ten million died, and other millions were saved only by foreign relief.

The New Economic Policy (1921-1928). Faced with an impossible situation, Lenin called a halt to "war communism" and substituted a new economic policy—the N.E.P. This permitted farmers to trade for profit in the open market after selling a specific percentage of their crops to the government. It also permitted private ownership of small factories. The state retained control of transportation, banks, foreign trade, and most of the mines and large factories. Foreign capitalists were invited into Russia to invest in Russia's resources and train Russian workers. A new currency was introduced in 1924, the old ruble being exchanged for the new one at the ratio of 50,000,000 to one. Lenin called this policy "a partial return to capitalism."

Under the N.E.P., Russia recovered from the bad effects of the war and "war communism." Production and farm crops were restored to pre-war levels. Even so, these were not very high. In a country of 150 million people, in 1926, only 4 million tons of steel and 30 million pairs of shoes indicated a low level of consumption. A new middle class, the *nepmen*, and a rich peasant class called the *kulaks* arose.

The Five Year Plans (1928-1958). A planned society came into being with the First Five Year Plan in 1928, under Stalin's leadership. The Plan controlled the flow of resources and manpower which under free capitalism is regulated by shifts in demand and supply, through changes in prices, wage levels, profits, interest rates or rent.

The State Planning Commission (Gosplan) decided how much of each article the country should produce, what wages workers should receive, and at what prices all goods should be sold. The Commission determined how much steel, coal, etc., should be produced and in what qualities and grades; how many workers should be trained in technical schools, and in what particular skills; how many machines and spare parts should be manufactured; and how, when, where and to whom the steel, coal, technicians and machines should be made available.

The First Five Year Plan (1928-1932) aimed at the building up of steel plants and hydroelectric resources, and the collectivization of agriculture by eliminating private ownership and the kulak class. The Second Five Year Plan (1933-37) aimed at cutting down imports and achieving national self-sufficiency, especially in the heavy industries that were basic to war production. The Third Plan (1938-42) concentrated on the chemical industries, and the industrialization of backward areas, particularly in the East. It was interrupted by the war. In 1946, the Fourth Plan was introduced to rebuild the war-torn economy and raise production above 1941 levels. The Fifth Plan (1951-55) aimed at raising agricultural and industrial production to new levels, to make more consumer goods and make Russia the leading producer in Europe. The Sixth Plan (1956-60) called for a large increase in heavy industry and a sharp rise in farm and factory production.

In September, 1957, the Sixth Plan was scrapped suddenly, with its end set for 1958 rather than 1960. It was decided to give control of industry to local authorities. The Plan had not foreseen the discovery of new raw material deposits and the rapid advance of synthetics. It was replaced by the First Seven Year Plan, to increase the development of metals, chemicals, synthetics and plastics, push electrification and the production of consumer goods. This planning has produced great changes in the economic life of Russia.

1. **Industry.** Russia has become a powerful industrial nation—second only to the United States. Vast natural resources have been discovered and are being developed. The production of coal, steel, hydroelectric power, and oil has increased. Industry has been shifted eastward. Giant plants in the Urals, Central Asia and Siberia now supply most of the Russia magnesium and aluminum, and more than 60% of pig iron and steel production.
2. **Agriculture.** By 1939, private farms had disappeared. Farms were joined into large *collectives*. The kulaks were forcibly included, and objectors were ruthlessly exiled or killed. The result was decreased food production, widespread famine and death to millions of people (1930-1932).

The collective is cooperatively run by its members, with machinery, credit and technical advice provided by the government. Part of the crop goes to the government as taxes, part of it for the experts and machinery. The rest is sold in the open market or cooperative stores, the proceeds going to improve the farm and to be divided among the peasant members. Each member is permitted to own his house, orchard and vegetable patch, some chickens and a cow.

Agricultural output has increased but not as spectacularly as has industrial production. The Khrushchev government has opened up large new farm lands in Central Asia, and by applying American farm methods (studied by a visiting delegation to the United States in 1956), it hopes to satisfy the needs of the growing population.

In January, 1958, Khrushchev announced a new farm program for Russia. The machine and tractor stations (an important method of political control) are to be abolished. These stations had provided all the tractors, combines, cultivators and other implements used on the collective farms. The stations will sell their implements to the collectives, and they will be operated only for the repair of farm machinery and the sale of spare parts.

The new program abolished compulsory crop deliveries to the government at low prices and cancelled all outstanding farm debts to the state. Farm prices will be fixed at levels that reflect the actual cost of production to stimulate farm output.

Weak Spots in Russia's Economy. There are two serious weak spots in Russia today — agriculture and consumer goods.








In spite of mechanization and the opening up of new lands, Russian farm production is not enough for Russia's needs. One

Russian farmer produces only enough to feed four Russians (the average American farmer feeds 16 people). In 1957 the average Russian had 20% less grain to eat than he did in 1914. The number of cattle per person is less today than in 1914. Only the number of hogs has increased. This means that the average Russian is still not getting the quantity of foodstuffs he needs.

In consumer goods the story is much the same. Production of textiles, soap, homes, and shoes has been sacrificed for heavy industry. The result is a low standard of living for many Russians. Clothing is very expensive; a pair of men's shoes costs about one-third the average Moscow worker's monthly wage. Rents are low, but housing for city workers is very scarce, and most apartments are shared by two or more families, each resident having about 8 x 5 feet of floor space.

In January, 1958, the government increased prices of cars by 25-50%, of vodka by 10-20%, of carpeting and other items by 10%. This was done to raise more revenue and to cut down the demand for products which interfere with heavy industry.

The Russian Working Class. There are today about 50 million workers in the Soviet Union. They are guaranteed the right to work, to leisure time, to social security. However, the position of the Russian worker is far from good.

	United States	Canada	Great Britain	France	U.S.S.R.	
Bread—1 lb.	6	6	6	9	19	
Butter—1 lb.	31	39	37	169	373	
Fresh Milk—1 Quart	8	9	15	20	52	
Eggs—1 doz.	22	29	66	96	291	
Potatoes—1 lb.	2	2	3	23	11	
Coffee—1 lb.	33	53	66	159	694	
Sugar—1 lb.	4	6	9	25	122	

MINUTES OF WORKING TIME REQUIRED TO BUY VARIOUS FOODS. As the chart shows the democratic nations are far ahead of totalitarian Russia in ability to earn enough money in a shorter time to purchase the foods shown.

Wherever he goes the influence of the state is always present. He is told, as a student, what line of work he will be trained for. His working conditions, his wages, his relations with his superiors, are dictated by the state. He must carry a working card with him at all times which contains his life story, where he was employed, what kind of a worker he was, what he was paid. He cannot leave his job without permission. He cannot travel from one city to another without a pass. He is paid according to how much he produces — piece wages are the common method of determining pay.

About 75% of the workers belong to labor unions which look after their education, cultural needs and welfare. Union members get benefits that non-members are denied, such as greater sickness and disability payments, priorities to rest homes and cultural facilities. Union dues are about 1% of wages. In 1957, for the first time in Russian history, a minimum wage was adopted for industry, construction, transportation and communication workers. At the official rate of exchange it is \$67.50 a month, but in terms of purchasing power it is much less. The minimum wage in the United States is \$1 an hour for a 40-hour week, totaling about \$170 a month (but less than 2 million out of 30 million industrial workers in the United States receive only the minimum). The work week in Russia is over 44 hours, although the government in 1958 reduced it to 7 hours a day in steel plants and 6 hours a day in the coal mines. Strikes are considered not in line with Communist doctrine, so there are no strikes in Russia.

Equality of pay is non-existent. Skilled workers receive higher wages under the incentive plan. Managers of factories are well paid, held in high social esteem, and receive special benefits, such as adequate housing, a car, the right to have servants and vacation homes. Artists, writers, entertainers, scholars, party, government and army officials receive salaries that place them above the workers. This difference has led to class distinctions and dissatisfaction.

Equal Status of Women. Women in the U.S.S.R. are guaranteed equal rights with men. About one-fifth of the members of the Supreme Soviet are women. There are almost a million women teachers and over 350,000 women engineers and technicians. During World War II Russian women fought as snipers, guerillas and plane pilots. Today half of the wage earners in Russia are women.

Compulsory Education. Under the Czars, only one person in six knew how to read. Today there is universal, compulsory education.

All Soviet children start school at the age of seven, and go to a seven-year school. There is great emphasis on science education. A bright Russian child gets 10 years of mathematics including trigonometry, 5 years of physics, 4 years of chemistry, 5 years of biology, and 1 year of astronomy. He is watched closely for intellectual abili-

ty. If he has talent, he gets higher education. He is paid to study, and the higher his grades, the more he is paid. This training is open to girls as well as boys.

Vocational training is stressed in technical schools. Adult education courses attract millions of people. Throughout the entire school system, Communist principles and Russian nationalism are taught.

The Soviet government needs scientists so it just trains them — individuals have no choice. There are many rewards for scientists while there is no demand for talent in private industry, advertising or marketing. There are comparatively few lawyers in Russia, and medicine is not a highly regarded profession.

Soviet development of atomic and hydrogen bombs, missile weapons, and the *sputnik*, or satellite, that circles the earth hundreds of miles away at a speed of 18,000 miles an hour — shows not only Russian ability but also the government's willingness to spend large sums of money on science and propaganda.

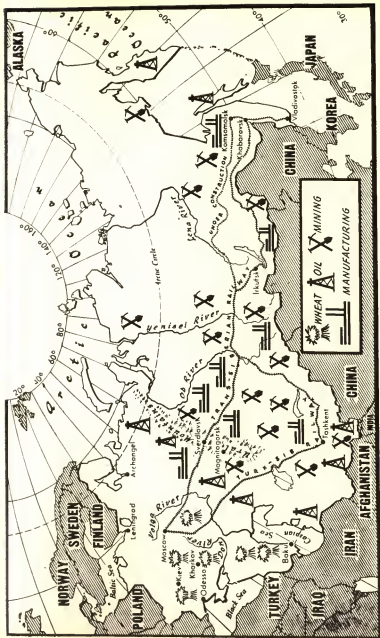
Religion. The favored position of the Greek Orthodox Church under the Czars was destroyed by the Communists. Many churches were converted into state museums, and clergymen were imprisoned or killed. Propaganda against religion was spread through schools, books, radio and newspapers. Since World War II, the Communists have permitted religious services in some of the churches. The Greek Orthodox Church has been revived and the position of the Patriarch (similar to the Pope in Rome) has been restored. The position of the Church has improved, but it cannot engage in propagandizing, moralizing, and educational activities.

Cultural Life. There is no intellectual freedom under a Soviet dictator. Writers, painters, and composers must follow Communist party policies which stifle originality and deaden imaginative expression. Novelists write about mills, mines, factories and collective farms—while artists, the movies and the theater praise the new Soviet working man. The government is generous with prizes and awards to keep absolute control over Soviet cultural life.

Russian novelist Boris Pasternak was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1958. But he was forced to refuse it because his novel was considered anti-Russian by the Soviets.

Foreign Trade. For many years the Soviet Union tried to be self-sufficient. Since 1950 Russia has become the sixth largest trading nation in the world. In 1956, Russia imported and exported goods totaling more than \$7.25 billions.

Much of this trade was in raw materials—iron ore, manganese, lumber, petroleum and cotton. Almost 75% was with other Communist-controlled countries, 16% with the West, and 8% with the under-developed countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. This trade strengthens Russian control over countries dominated by her.



INDUSTRIAL MAP OF THE U.S.S.R. This map shows the U.S.S.R. with its sources of raw materials and its centers of production.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

<i>Period and Attitude</i>	<i>Relations With Rest of World</i>
1917-1934 Fear, suspicion and unfriendliness.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Military intervention of European countries in Russian civil war angered the Communists. 2. Formation of Third International to spread world revolution (1919). 3. Creation of Communist parties in hope of revolution in Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland. 4. Formal recognition of U.S.S.R. by Germany, 1922; England and France, 1924; United States, 1934. 5. Russian representatives sent to international meetings of League of Nations without joining the League.
1934-1939 Cooperation and collective security.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Japanese imperialist expansion and rise of Nazis in Germany caused Russia to seek closer relations with other countries. 2. In 1934 Russia joined the League of Nations and became a permanent member of the Security Council. 3. Policy of collective security (united action against aggression) urged by Russia to halt imperialist drives of Germany, Italy and Japan.
1939-1941 Isolation and expansion.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Soviet interest in the League and cooperation with the democracies cooled off after the Munich Pact (1938) when Germany was given part of Czechoslovakia. 2. Russia returned to a policy of isolation. 3. Russia signed a non-aggression pact with Germany in August, 1939. 4. Russia annexed eastern Poland following its defeat by Germany in 1939. 5. Russia invaded Finland; took areas in the north-east and southeast (1939-40) to strengthen her own borders. 6. As a result of this attack, Russia was expelled from the League of Nations (1939). 7. Russia annexed the Baltic provinces (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania) while the second World War was in progress (1940).
1941-1946 Cooperation with the West.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In spite of their non-aggression treaty, Germany attacked Russia (1941), forcing her into the war. 2. During the war, Russia received Lend-Lease financial and military assistance from the Allies, particularly the United States. 3. The Comintern (Communist International) was abolished as a gesture of friendship toward the West.

1946 to
present

"The Cold War."



4. Russian military offensive from the east helped to crush Germany.
5. War conferences (Moscow, 1943; Teheran, 1943; Yalta, 1945; Potsdam, 1945) coordinated war plans between Russia and her allies.
6. Russia participated in the San Francisco Conference (1945) to create the United Nations; became a charter member.
7. Russia declared war on Japan shortly after the atomic bombing of Hiroshima, thus joining the war in the Pacific.
1. Establishment of Cominform (Communist Information Bureau) to carry on the program of world communism.
2. Acquisition of territory after World War II (Eastern Prussia, Sakhalin Island, Kurile Islands).
3. Establishment of satellite Communist states in Eastern Europe (Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, Albania, Rumania, Bulgaria).
4. Creation of Communist state in Yugoslavia which broke away from Russian domination in 1948 under Tito and has received aid from the West.
5. Russian propaganda spread in various parts of the world and in the United Nations (see pages 437, 439, 451, 453).
6. Maintenance of the "Iron Curtain" to keep western ideas and influence out of Russia and her satellites.
7. Military aid given to Communists in Indo-China, China and Korea (see pages 454-455).
8. Communist penetration in the Middle East (see pages 450-453).
9. Break-up of Cominform in 1956 to secure better relations with the West.
10. Disagreements with the West over disarmament, atomic bomb testing and German unification.
11. Building up of military strength — large army, powerful submarine fleet (largest in the world), big air force, hydrogen and atom bombs; in 1957, development of missiles and satellites.

5. The Fascist Dictatorship in Italy

A. Rise of Fascism

Italy After World War I. Although on the victorious side, Italy was in a very serious position after the war ended. The nation had entered the war deeply divided, with large sections of the people hostile or disinterested; and military reverses had weakened national morale. Hopes of territorial gains had not come true.

Although Italy had gained Italia Irredenta (Istria, Trieste, Trentino) she had not received any colonies in Africa or any territory in the Balkans. The loss of 600,000 soldiers was a heavy price to pay for the land she did receive.



POWER-MAD DICTATORS. Hitler with his Brownshirts and Mussolini with his Black-shirts rode ruthlessly into power on the backs of people who believed their fantastic promises. Before World War II was over, millions of people were dead — killed on the orders of the bloodthirstiest madmen in history.

Unemployment increased rapidly, and many of the returning soldiers were unable to get jobs. Inflation of the currency greatly increased living costs. The tax burden grew heavier. The government with its differing political parties seemed unable to provide relief.

Internal troubles reached their height in 1920-21. The Socialist Party, imitating the Russian Communists, opposed capitalists, seized factories, and paralyzed industry, the railways, and even agriculture by strikes. The government was helpless to maintain order and end the difficulties.

Organization of the Fascist Party. The founder of the Fascist Party was Benito Mussolini (1883-1945). After World War I he left the Socialists and created a party which enlisted the support of many former soldiers, property owners, and disappointed nationalists, and began to attack the policies of the weak government.

This new party, called the *Fascists*, took its name from the Latin word "fasces" (a bundle of sticks)—meaning "in union there is strength." The party grew strong due to its tight discipline, the support given by high military authorities and business interests that desired to break up working class organizations. The strong-arm treatment of opponents by black-shirted thugs helped, as did the speaking and acting qualities of its leader, called *Il Duce*. Mussolini promised great things for Italy if he were put into power—an honest and efficient government, the solution of economic problems, discipline, and national prestige.

The March on Rome. In October, 1922, the Fascists held a congress at Naples. Forty thousand of them paraded the streets in military fashion. Mussolini demanded that the king make him premier, and threatened to march on Rome. The fascist "army" began to move. The regular army stood aside. King Victor Emmanuel III, without a government and with Fascists pouring into the capital, sent for Mussolini and asked him to form a ministry. Thus, by the end of October, 1922, Mussolini had become Prime Minister.

B. Fascism in Power

Creation of a Dictatorship. Gradually the Fascists, never numbering more than a small fraction of the Italian people (like the Communists in Russia) established a one-party rule in Italy. This was brought about in a number of ways:

1. Only one political party, the Fascist, was permitted in Italy.
2. All opposition was ruthlessly crushed, the leaders killed or jailed. A secret police helped to destroy any threat to the Fascists.
3. Candidates for the Italian Parliament were picked by the Fascist party, thus making certain that only Fascists and their supporters were elected.
4. A severe censorship of all methods of communication was established, and civil liberties were denied.
5. Local government was centralized by the appointment of prefects and governors responsible to Il Duce.
6. All legislation was initiated by Mussolini as the head of the state.
7. Although the king remained a figurehead and a Parliament existed, all powers were in the hands of Mussolini who held a dozen posts in the Italian cabinet.

Economic Changes. On the economic front, the Fascists outlawed strikes and lockouts, and forced employers and workers into "corporations." These bodies, regulated by the Ministry of Corporations under Mussolini, were charged with the peaceful settlement of industrial disputes. A Charter of Labor (1927) guaranteed private property, prohibited employers from working their men more than 8 hours a day or 6 days a week, and obliged employers to contribute to the insurance of their workers against illness, accidents, old age and unemployment.

For patriotic reasons, as well as to provide work for the unemployed, the government undertook a program of public works. Ancient monuments were repaired, the railroads were modernized, the merchant marine was built up, the radio and airplane industries were given aid. Agricultural works (wide reforestation and

reclamation of swamp lands) were undertaken, and hydroelectric power developed (to make up for the lack of iron and coal in Italy).

Religious Reforms. Since 1870, when the Italian government had taken over the city of Rome, and deprived the Pope of his rule there, the Catholic Church had not recognized the Italian government. This Roman question had been a serious problem in Italy, where the great majority of people are Catholic. In 1929 Mussolini succeeded in ending the split between Church and State.

By the *Lateran Treaties*, Italy agreed to recognize the sovereignty of a small but independent Papal State (Vatican City). Catholicism became the state religion. Religious instruction under Church supervision was given in the state schools.

Education. The Fascist regime increased the number of schools and enforced compulsory attendance. Illiteracy was reduced. In the schools the great emphasis was on training for Fascist citizenship. The teachers were Fascist in sympathy, and the curricula and textbooks were Fascist in principle and aim.

For many children Fascist training in the schools was supplemented by similar training in the party's youth organizations. For the young men, intensive indoctrination was carried on along with universal military training.

Militarism. Not only was the army kept on the basis of universal compulsory service, but it was paraded very frequently in public and praised by Mussolini on every possible occasion. The Italian navy and air force were increased.

Foreign Policies. Mussolini's foreign policies were aimed at making Italy a Great Power. Militarism and nationalism (the glorification of the state) were used to make the Mediterranean an Italian sea ("mare nostrum"—our sea), and to acquire colonies in Africa and domination over the Adriatic. To realize these objectives, the following steps were taken:

1. Italy acquired control of the Dodecanese Islands in the Aegean Sea by the Treaty of Lausanne (1923).
2. The city of Fiume was acquired in 1924 by a treaty with Yugoslavia.
3. Albania was made a protectorate of Italy in 1927, and was annexed in 1939.
4. Ethiopia, an independent state in Africa, was conquered by Italian troops in 1935-36, in spite of League of Nations opposition.
5. In 1936 Mussolini intervened in the Spanish Civil War by sending in 50,000 troops to help General Franco take over Spain. German and Italian help enabled Franco to establish a

government that allied itself with the other dictatorships against the democracies of England and France.

6. In the same year Mussolini concluded a treaty with Nazi Germany (the "Rome-Berlin Axis") that became a military alliance in 1939.
7. The Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis came into existence in 1937 with the addition of Japan.

The benefits that Italy could secure from her alliance with Germany and Japan were of doubtful value, for neither of them could send fleets to the Mediterranean in case of general war. Hundreds of thousands of Italian troops were in Libya and Ethiopia. Italian industry was still partly dependent upon coal imported from England. With the certainty that the British, by sealing off Gibraltar and the Suez Canal in time of war, could seriously hurt Italian war plans, Mussolini had maneuvered his country into a dangerous position by 1939. His desire to play a leading role in foreign affairs led him to join his ally, Germany, in 1940, declaring war against a France that had already collapsed and an England that seemed to be on the edge of defeat.

C. Italy in World War II

Defeats of Italy. The high hopes of Mussolini for an easy and early victory and territorial gain were destroyed by Allied armies. Italian troops in Ethiopia were defeated. Italian efforts to invade Egypt from Libya were thrown back, and a counteroffensive by British and American soldiers took over Libya. Italian attempts to invade Greece were a failure. German troops rescued Mussolini and brought the Balkan peninsula under German control. In 1943 Sicily was invaded by Allied troops and conquered within five weeks.

The Italian people, disillusioned by these reverses in a war for which they had never been enthusiastic, threw Mussolini out of office in July, 1943. A temporary government signed a truce with the British and Americans. This led the Germans to occupy most of Italy. The temporary Italian government reentered the war in September, this time against Germany. A savage struggle to liberate Italy from German rule lasted until 1945.

Mussolini was imprisoned after his retirement, but was rescued by German paratroopers and taken to the north where he tried to lead the remains of his Fascist forces against the Allies. In April, 1945, while fleeing to Switzerland after the collapse of the German defense line in north Italy, Mussolini was caught and shot by Italian anti-Fascists.

Treaty of Peace. Under a treaty imposed by the victorious nations in 1947, Italy ceded small border areas to France and Yugoslavia;

recognized Trieste as a "free city"; surrendered the Dodecanese Islands to Greece; recognized the independence of Albania; cut her military forces; paid reparations of \$360,000,000; and gave up all her colonies in Africa.

Libya became an independent state in 1951; Eritrea was joined to Ethiopia (which had regained its independence in 1941); and Somalia was made a trusteeship under Italian administration, with promises of independence by 1960.

D. Italy Since 1945

Establishment of a Republic. For three years following the ouster of Mussolini, Italy was governed by a series of temporary prime ministers appointed by the king. However, Victor Emmanuel III was too closely associated in the popular mind with the Fascist regime. He was willing to abdicate in favor of his son, Prince Humbert, but in the plebiscite of June, 1946, the people voted to end the monarchy and create a republic. Ninety percent of all the adults voted (including women for the first time). A new constitution went into effect in 1948.

THE GOVERNMENT OF ITALY

Executive	President, elected by the legislature for a 7-year term.	He is a figurehead, but has power to select the Premier.
Cabinet	Headed by Premier.	Chief executive power, responsible for passage and enforcement of major laws; must have support of majority in each house of Parliament.
Legislature	Senate (term — 7 years) and Chamber of Deputies (term — 5 years) both elected by universal suffrage.	Passes all laws.
Judiciary	System of courts with judges appointed by the Ministry of Justice.	Provides for judicial review with a Constitutional Court to rule on constitutionality of laws.
Civil Liberties	Guarantees all civil liberties, but prohibits re-creation of Fascist Party.	
Religion	Catholicism is the state religion, and the Lateran Treaties of 1929 were made an integral part of the Constitution.	Provided specifically in Constitution.

Post-War Recovery. Between 1948 and 1953 Alcide de Gasperi, leader of the Christian Democratic Party, was able to stay in power by reshuffling his cabinet eight times. Large amounts of Marshall Plan aid (see page 444) helped Italy recover from the effects of the war. De Gasperi began a plan for agricultural development of the chronically poor areas in the south. It called for a 12-year program of land reform and reclamation, reforestation, irrigation and the building of communications and new villages.

Although production in Italy has improved considerably since 1950, unemployment continues, and agriculture, the basic form of livelihood, is held back by lack of modern methods.

Left-wing parties in Italy are very large—the Italian Communist party is the largest of the European Communist parties outside of Russia and her satellites. Communist strength, estimated at one-third of the voting power of Italy, declined in 1956, 1957, and 1958, as industrial conditions improved, wages increased and agricultural production went up. In 1958 the Christian Democrats controlled the Italian cabinet.

Foreign Relations. Italy's relations with the Western nations improved after 1948. She became a member of the Schuman Plan (the Iron and Steel Community) in 1952 with five other states, and in 1957 ratified the Euromarket and Euratom programs (see page 448). Italy joined the other Western states in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. In 1955 she became a member of the United Nations. With economic and military assistance, Italy has become a valued and important ally in Western efforts against communism.

Problems Facing Italy. The most important problems facing Italy today are economic: low standards of living, serious unemployment, heavy taxes, and lack of essential raw materials. In addition, the powerful Communist Party on the left, and the threatened revival of Fascism on the right, present political problems. Relations with the Church are strained from time to time over religious education in the schools. Efforts to increase her military forces beyond the treaty limits have met with sympathy from her Western allies, but the problem of money and taxes for such increase is not easily solved. However, democracy in Italy today is stronger than it was after the war, and there is much hope for the peaceful solution of her problems.

6. *The Nazi Dictatorship in Germany*

A. Germany After World War I

The Weimar Republic (1919-1933). The loss of the war led to revolution in Germany. The Hohenzollern dynasty and the German

princes were overthrown. A new constitution, adopted by the Weimar Assembly in 1919, lessened the powers of the states and increased those of the central government. There was a Reichstag, representing the people, a Reichsrat, representing the states, and a president, elected by the people for a seven-year term. The chancellor, appointed by the president, and the cabinet were responsible to the Reichstag. Suffrage was given to all German citizens over 20 years of age; a detailed bill of rights was included. The state constitutions also guaranteed a democratic republic.

The Weimar government lasted 14 years. From the beginning it was faced with severe problems:

1. From 1920 to 1923 a serious, runaway inflation of currency, plus the problem of meeting large reparations payments to the victorious nations (\$33 billions), collapsed German economy. The Dawes Plan of 1924 and the Young Plan of 1929 scaled the reparations down, and provided for yearly payments with loans from Germany's former enemies, especially the United States.

2. The humiliating terms of the Versailles Treaty (see page 362) created much discontent among nationalist groups.

3. The growth of a large Communist Party in Germany (6 million votes in the 1932 election) indicated the strength of the leftist anti-democratic forces.

4. From the right, there was opposition to the Republic from the Nationalists and National Socialists (Nazis).

5. German efforts to re-arm herself, or disarm her neighbors, met with little success.

6. Economic distress in Germany, as the depression that began in 1929 deepened, caused much anti-government feeling.

B. The Establishment of Nazi Control

The Growth of the Nazi Party. The National Socialist Party (Nazi) was formed in 1919. Adolph Hitler was the seventh member of this tiny extremely nationalistic group. Its program: (1) denounced the Versailles Treaty and demanded the union of all Germans into a Greater Germany; (2) demanded the restoration of German colonies; (3) demanded the full re-arming of Germany; (4) attacked the Jews in Germany as "aliens", denied them German citizenship and threatened them with exile; (5) opposed foreign immigration, wanted to ban "unpatriotic" newspapers and associations, and "nationalize" education; (6) called for economic reforms along National Socialist rather than Communist lines; (7) condemned the parliamentary system as weak and unable to solve Germany's problems.

In 1923 the Nazis attempted a *putsch* or coup d'état, to seize the

government by force. It failed and Hitler was sent to jail. While there, he wrote *Mein Kampf* (*My Battle*) which became the Bible of the Nazis, and in which he described his plans for the future Reich under Nazi control.

Hitler discovered that he could attract and hold large audiences by his fierce descriptions of the woes of Germany and sharp attacks on Jews and foreigners. His spell-binding talent helped to build up the Nazi Party. He also discovered the technique of the "big lie"—the bigger the lie, constantly repeated, the easier it was to convince the people of its truth.

After the economic collapse of Germany (1929) Hitler's promises sounded tempting. To the unemployed, he promised jobs; to industrial and banking groups, the removal of a growing Communist threat; he promised the Nationalists to tear up the Versailles Treaty and re-establish Germany as a Great Power; to the average German, his anti-Semitic statements promised the elimination of a small but wealthy group. Nazi influence grew from 18% of the popular vote in 1930 to 37% in 1932.

The Nazis Seize Control. By 1932 the depression had grown worse and the grumblings louder. The German President, General von Hindenburg, appointed one Chancellor after another to deal with the crisis. Finally, in desperation, he turned to the Nazis and their allies, the Nationalists. In January, 1933, Hitler was appointed Chancellor.

Hitler's first move was to dissolve the Reichstag and order new elections. Though he controlled the radio and threatened his opponents, Hitler secured only a bare majority in the election. However, the new Reichstag voted absolute powers to Hitler. The Weimar Republic had come to an end.

C. The Nazi Dictatorship

Changes in Government. Hitler quickly established one-man, one-party rule in Germany. Political power was concentrated in Berlin. Calling his regime the Third Reich, Hitler substituted the imperial flag for the Weimar banner. After the death of von Hindenburg, in 1934, Hitler became President and Chancellor. As *Der Fuehrer* ("The Leader") he had absolute power.

Civil liberties were cancelled. Educational institutions, the press, movies and radio were brought under Nazi control. Superb propaganda hypnotized a divided, confused and partly paralyzed nation and preached a narrow chauvinism (fanatical patriotism). The myth of the Fuehrer who could do no wrong and Nazi attitudes regarding race and religion, were carefully circulated by the Ministry of Propaganda, headed by Joseph Goebbels.

Hitler established absolute control over the Storm Troopers, or "Brown Shirts"—the Nazi private army—after he had a number of their leaders executed in 1934. A powerful secret police (the dreaded *Gestapo*), under Heinrich Himmler, ruthlessly stamped out all opposition, and concentration camps were quickly filled with persons suspected of being anti-Nazi.

The Reichstag was filled with Nazis and their supporters. It met to vote the laws requested by Hitler, or to approve steps he had already taken.

Education and Culture. Nazi doctrines were taught in schools and the Hitler *Jugend* (a youth organization). Institutions of learning, elementary and advanced, were purged of teachers whose devotion to Hitler's doctrines was doubtful, or who were "racially" undesirable. Eminent scholars, with some exceptions (Einstein), promoted the cult of the superman, and the Nazi doctrines of Nordic supremacy.

Persecution of the Jews. Not only were the Jews denied ordinary rights as citizens, but they were forced out of business and the professions, fined, beaten, tortured and killed. Foreign protests were ignored.

Religion. The Nazis tried to regiment Christian churches. Protestant groups were forced to unite under a Hitler puppet. Many pastors formed their own organization, for which they were imprisoned, notably Pastor Martin Niemöller.

The German Youth movement brought protests from Catholic Cardinals and from the Vatican. Hitler struck back by closing Catholic schools. He also attacked Catholic orders and tried many monks on false charges.

Industry and Labor. Trade unions were dissolved. Workers and employers were forced into a state-controlled Labor Front. Strikes were prohibited and the unemployed were put to work or conscripted into work brigades.

The Nazis controlled production, prices, banking, foreign trade, and dictated even the percentage of profit capitalists could keep. Their program of German *autarky* (self-sufficiency) expanded the use of synthetics for articles that Germany normally imported.

Recovery after 1933 was due to: Nazi public works projects; the dismissal of women from industry; the elimination of Jews and other "undesirables" from employment; the gigantic program of rearmament (begun in 1933) which lowered consumer standards of living ("guns versus butter"); the revival of conscription in 1935; and a vigorous trade offensive in southeastern Europe and Latin America.

Military and Foreign Policies. In preparing for an aggressive foreign

policy, Hitler made Germany into a powerful armed nation. He tore up the Versailles Treaty and began drafting an army. The Rhineland was re-fortified and the Siegfried Line was built to face the French Maginot Line. A navy was built around "pocket" battleships (10,000-ton ships with the armaments of a battleship and the speed of a cruiser). The air force became the largest in Europe; the army was well-trained and equipped with weapons from the giant armament factories that worked around the clock. New techniques of warfare such as the *blitzkrieg* ("lightning war") were developed. So armed, Hitler defied the West and prepared to expand in search of *lebensraum* ("elbow room") for the growing population.

Hitler's foreign policies amounted to aggression by installments. One step at a time, he tested the Western states, and found that he could successfully defy them.

D. Hitler's March to Power

1. He withdrew Germany from the League of Nations Disarmament Conference in 1933 when it failed to reduce the armaments of the Western states.
2. In 1935 the Saar was returned to Germany after its inhabitants voted 90% for union.
3. In 1935 he announced that Germany would rearm. An Anglo-German naval treaty of 1935 approved Hitler's violation of the Treaty of Versailles by permitting Germany to have a navy 35% as big as Britain's.
4. In March, 1936, German troops invaded the Rhineland and began the construction of a strong line of fortifications, again breaking the Treaty.
5. Later in 1936 Germany and Italy formed the Rome-Berlin alliance which Japan subsequently joined.
6. Germany gave military assistance in 1936 to help General Franco establish himself as the Fascist ruler of Spain.
7. In March, 1938, Germany occupied Austria, completing *anschluss* (union) with the Germans there. An Austrian plebiscite showed a 99.75% favorable vote. The French and British did nothing.
8. In September, 1938, at Munich, Hitler forced the Western states to recognize his seizure of the Sudeten region of Czechoslovakia.
9. In March, 1939, Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.
10. In August, 1939, he concluded a non-aggression treaty with Russia that contained secret clauses assigning Finland and the Baltic states to Russia, and dividing Poland into German

and Russian spheres. Hitler thus freed himself from the danger of a two-front war and felt free to deal with Poland.

11. After his ultimatum to Poland demanding a thoroughfare through to East Prussia was refused, Hitler sent his armies into Poland on September 1, 1939. Just a week before this (August 24) Poland and England had signed a mutual defense pact. The Western states were determined to end their appeasement policy toward Germany. The Poles asked for assistance. On September 3rd, Britain and France declared war on Germany. World War II had begun. (For the history of Germany during World War II and later, see pages 411-23)

7. *Spread of Dictatorship in Europe*

The small states in east-central and southeastern Europe started as democratic republics, in most cases, after World War I, but one by one, dictators arose. Some of the reasons for this spread of absolutism were:

1. The problem of unifying groups of people who had never been joined before.
2. Social and economic losses in the war; cost of reconstruction; agrarian backwardness; lack of industrialization.
3. Unfamiliarity with democratic ways—the people had never voted before, legislators were inexperienced in public affairs.
4. Corruption and inefficiency in government.
5. Fear of communism.
6. Diplomatic tensions due to territorial aims of neighboring states.
7. Constant armament race.

Austria. Differences of opinion between the two major parties in Austria, plus the economic loss of agricultural areas and markets after the war, contributed to the establishment of a dictatorship by the Christian Socialist leader Dollfuss in 1934. The Austrian National Socialists (Nazis) attempted a coup d'état in July, 1934. Dollfuss was assassinated during the rioting. Mussolini's threat to interfere to save Austrian independence kept Hitler from intervening. The Austrian dictatorship thus was able to survive four more years until Hitler annexed the country in 1938. This time Mussolini, by now an ally of Hitler, kept neutral.

Yugoslavia. The differences between Serbs and Croats proved so troublesome that in 1929, following the assassination of Croat leaders, King Alexander of Yugoslavia made himself dictator, suspended the constitution and ruthlessly suppressed all opposition. Even a new constitution in 1931, and the murder of the king in 1934, did not end the dictatorship. It continued under a regency.

During World War II German troops occupied the country and divided it into two parts. Guerrilla warfare continued against the Germans. The leaders of the Yugoslavs were General Mikhailovitch, who represented the royal family, and Tito, a Russian-sponsored Communist leader. Tito was powerful enough to oust King Peter and create a Communist state in Yugoslavia.

Rumania. The corruption of government officials and the lack of democratic and economic stability enabled King Carol to rule as dictator during the interval between the two world wars.

Poland. The largest of the new states in postwar Europe, Poland came under the one-man rule of Marshal Pilsudski in 1926, because its large number of political factions made parliamentary government impossible. Even a new constitution adopted in 1935 did not end dictatorial rule.

Baltic States. Political disturbances, and the rise of Communist and Fascist extremist groups, led to the establishment of dictatorial rule in Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia. Lithuania, in 1928, Latvia in 1935 and Estonia from 1934 to 1936, were under the absolute control of one person.

Balkan States. Hungary remained an autocratic and semi-Fascist state under the control of Regent Admiral Horthy for many years after 1920. In Albania the democratic republic ended in 1928 with the establishment of a kingdom under the absolute rule of King Zog I. Bulgaria went through a series of changes in control. Either the king or the army was in charge—each intent on absolute control. Greece wavered between republic and monarchy, between dictatorship and democracy during the post-war years.

Spain. In 1931 Alfonso XIII was forced to abdicate, and Spain became a republic with a democratic constitution. Reforms introduced to curb the powers of the Church, limit the authority of the army and redistribute land to the peasants, met with opposition that flared into revolt in 1936, led by General Francisco Franco. To his aid came German and Italian soldiers and supplies; Russia sent some help to the Republicans. This civil war was a "preview" of World War II, and ended in 1939 with the establishment of a Fascist dictatorship under Franco.

Czechoslovakia. The important exception to this trend toward dictatorship was post-war Czechoslovakia. Despite the problem of minorities of Germans, Hungarians, Poles, and Lithuanians, and the newness of its independence (first time since the 17th Century) Czechoslovakia made remarkable progress in industry, transportation, education, armaments, economics and finance. This success was due to the work of Thomas Masaryk, for many years its President, and Eduard Benes, its Foreign Minister and later President.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. Which was characteristic of the Russian government before 1900?
(a) separation of Church and State, (b) absolute rule by czar,
(c) a responsible cabinet, (d) a legislature of two houses.
1. _____
2. Who was the leader of the Bolshevik revolution of 1917? (a)
Kerensky, (b) Lenin, (c) Malenkov, (d) Rasputin. 2. _____
3. Which has been accomplished in Russia since the end of World
War I? (a) abolition of the secret police, (b) development of a
two-party system, (c) increase in literacy, (d) protection of civil
liberties. 3. _____
4. Which of these is a characteristic feature of Soviet Russia? (a)
collective ownership of farms, (b) labor's right to organize and
bargain collectively, (c) private ownership of the means of produc-
tion, (d) wage scales based upon need. 4. _____
5. Which of the following did *not* contribute to the Russian Revolution
in 1917? (a) oppression under the czars, (b) activities of the
Communists, (c) the first Five Year Plan, (d) Russian military
failures in World War I. 5. _____
6. The international organization of Communist Party representatives
was known as (a) Industrial Workers of the World, (b) Politburo,
(c) International Labor Organization, (d) Cominform. 6. _____
7. All of the following have long been identified with the history of
Russia *except* (a) oppression of farmers, (b) absolute government,
(c) widespread literacy, (d) search for warm water ports.
7. _____
8. The small group of advisors to Nikita Khrushchev is called the
(a) Cominform, (b) Politburo, (c) Supreme Council, (d) Supreme
Soviet. 8. _____
9. A Balkan nation completely dominated by Soviet Russia is (a)
Greece, (b) Rumania, (c) Turkey, (d) Yugoslavia. 9. _____
10. In which pair are the terms most closely identified with each other?
(a) democracy-autocracy, (b) slavery-freedom, (c) communism-
collective ownership, (d) totalitarianism-respect for human rights.
10. _____
11. After the beginning of World War II much of Russia's heavy in-
dustry was moved (a) north to the Baltic states, (b) south to the
Ukraine, (c) west to the satellite countries, (d) eastward to the
Urals and Siberia. 11. _____
12. The Communist Revolution in Russia occurred at about the same
time as the (a) formation of the Triple Alliance, (b) outbreak of
World War I, (c) entrance of the United States into World War
I, (d) Versailles Conference. 12. _____
13. The main purpose of Stalin's Five Year Plans was to (a) extend
suffrage, (b) start a world revolution, (c) increase industrial pro-
duction, (d) expand educational facilities. 13. _____

14. Which of the following is *not* a principle of communism? (a) dictatorship of the proletariat, (b) labor for all, (c) nationalization of industry, (d) freedom of religion. 14.
15. The government of Kerensky failed because (a) the Russian people preferred the Czar, (b) the middle class opposed him, (c) the Russian people were tired of war, (d) the Russian people successfully ousted him from office by election. 15.
16. All of the following are reasons for the refusal of the United States to recognize Russia before 1933 *except* (a) fear of the spread of communism, (b) refusal to pay past debts, (c) attitude toward property of American citizens in the U.S.S.R., (d) fear of attack by the U.S.S.R. 16.
17. The New Economic Policy in Russia was introduced by (a) Lenin, (b) Stalin, (c) Kerensky, (d) Khrushchev. 17.
18. The First Five Year Plan (a) led to the creation of rich peasants called kulaks, (b) equalized salaries and wages for all workers in Russia, (c) was declared completed in a little over four years, (d) led to the construction of an atomic reactor plant. 18.
19. The successful slogan of the Bolsheviks in 1917 was (a) "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity", (b) "Peace, Land, Bread", (c) "All men are created equal", (d) "All things to all groups". 19.
20. The last major power to recognize the Soviet Union was (a) England, (b) France, (c) Germany, (d) the United States. 20.
21. An important change that has taken place in Russia since World War I has been the (a) abandonment of imperialism, (b) development of industrial resources, (c) increase in small farm ownership, (d) increase in civil liberties. 21.
22. The population of Soviet Russia is (a) equal to that of China, (b) larger than that of the United States, (c) equal to that of Europe, (d) smaller than that of South America. 22.
23. The United States recognized the government of Communist Russia during the administration of (a) Warren Harding, (b) Herbert Hoover, (c) Woodrow Wilson, (d) Franklin Roosevelt. 23.
24. Which group of political leaders would Soviet Russia find most friendly to its policies? (a) Tito, Adenauer, Mao Tse-tung, (b) Gaitskell, Tito, Zoli, (c) Mao Tse-tung, Ho Chi-Minh, Togliatti, (d) Chiang Kai-shek, Nehru, Adenauer. 24.
25. Which of these leaders seized power first? (a) Lenin in Russia, (b) Mussolini in Italy, (c) Tito in Yugoslavia, (d) Hitler in Germany. 25.
26. Communism and fascism have proved to be most similar in the (a) elimination of private enterprise, (b) collectivization of farms, (c) persecution of minority and dissenting groups, (d) application of the principles of Stalin. 26.
27. Communist party members number, out of the entire Russian population, about (a) 3%, (b) 20%, (c) 50%, (d) 90%. 27.
28. The N.E.P. meant (a) a new foreign policy for Russia, (b) the adoption of a new program of science training, (c) a temporary retreat from "war communism", (d) the rise of Stalin to power. 28.

29. Under Russian economic production (a) consumer goods have been given top priorities, (b) equality of pay was adopted, (c) heavy industry was built up, (d) industrial control was decentralized.
30. "Sputnik" is a Russian term meaning (a) war council, (b) space satellite, (c) enemy of the state, (d) woman worker.

29. _____
30. _____

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.



I

II

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| _____ 1. Prince Lvov | a. secret police of Russia |
| _____ 2. Alexander Kerensky | b. rich peasants who lost their wealth under colonization |
| _____ 3. Leon Trotsky | c. Revolution of March, 1917 |
| _____ 4. M.V.D. | d. assumed power after Stalin's death |
| _____ 5. N.E.P. | e. present Secretary of the Russian Communist Party |
| _____ 6. Georgi Malenkov | f. Socialist Premier who favored Russian continuation in war against Germany, 1917 |
| _____ 7. kulaks | g. State Planning Commission |
| _____ 8. Marshal Zhukov | h. retreat toward capitalism |
| _____ 9. Nikita Khrushchev | i. head of Cominform |
| _____ 10. Gosplan | j. first war minister of Red Russia |
| | k. demoted from Defense post |

TRUE-FALSE SUBSTITUTION TEST

Write T in the space provided at the left if the statement is correct; if the statement is false, substitute the correct word or phrase for the word in *italics*.

- _____ 1. Russia withdrew from the First World War by signing the Treaty of *Versailles*.
- _____ 2. The Russian legislature today is called the *Duma*.
- _____ 3. The civil war in Russia between 1917 and 1920 ended with the defeat of the *white* Russians.
- _____ 4. During the period of *war communism*, certain features of capitalism were permitted to exist in Russia.
- _____ 5. Russia today is a *federal republic*.
- _____ 6. The Gestapo in Nazi Germany were similar in powers and duties to the *Gosplan* in Russia.
- _____ 7. Communist party members number about 10 percent of the Russian population.
- _____ 8. A European Communist state that has broken away from Russian domination is *Hungary*.
- _____ 9. Russia signed a non-aggression pact with *Germany* in 1939 which helped to bring on World War II.
- _____ 10. The *Iron Curtain* is maintained by Russia to keep western ideas and influence to a minimum in Russia and its satellites.

ASSOCIATION TEST

Write in the space provided the letter of the Russian who is associated with the events listed in Column I.

I

- _____ 1. Russia joins the United Nations
- _____ 2. execution of Beria
- _____ 3. war communism
- _____ 4. Five Year Plan
- _____ 5. first Russian space satellite
- _____ 6. collectivization of farming
- _____ 7. New Economic Policy
- _____ 8. American recognition of Russia
- _____ 9. Marshal Bulganin demoted
- _____ 10. assassination of Leon Trotsky

II

- a. Nikolai Lenin
- b. Josef Stalin
- c. Georgi Malenkov
- d. Nikita Khrushchev



ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Describe briefly two important developments in the domestic or foreign policies of Soviet Russia that have occurred since the death of Stalin in 1953.

2. Revolutions have played an important part in the history of European countries. (a) Describe the conditions in Russia that led to the revolution of 1917 in that country. (b) State three important results of this revolution.

3. Powerful dictators have arisen from time to time. (a) Discuss two conditions within a country that make possible the rise of a dictator. (b) Mention four characteristics of 20th Century dictatorships.

4. Show how each of the following has influenced world history: (a) expansionist policies of the Russian czars, (b) regime of Joseph Stalin. (c) Describe two attempts to restrict the spread of Soviet Russia's influence in the world today.

5. Tell briefly how Russia has extended her influence since 1900 in two specific areas of the Far East.

6. Show how communism differs from democracy with respect to each of *three* of the following: national elections, civil rights, work in the fields of art or science, private enterprise, minority groups' education.

7. Describe the influence of each of the following on the history of his country or the world: Nikolai Lenin, Josef Stalin, Nikita Khrushchev.

8. (a) Explain how the Communists seized power in Russia in 1917-20. (b) Assume that you are going to move to Soviet Russia and become a citizen of that nation. Tell *three* important ways in which your life would be changed from your present way of living in the United States.

9. "To win the cold war it is necessary for the Western democracies to establish as correctly as possible their own strengths and weaknesses as well as those of Communist Russia and its satellites." (a) Describe one strength and one weakness of the Western democracies and (b) one strength and one weakness of Communist Russia and its satellites.

10. It is customary for totalitarian countries to attempt to disguise themselves as democracies. (a) Describe three features of life in a true

democracy that do not exist in a totalitarian country. (b) Discuss briefly two devices used by totalitarian countries to give the impression they are democratic.

11. Discuss the present policy of Soviet Russia with respect to *three* of the following: (a) role of labor unions, (b) role of political parties, (c) relation between government and business, (d) relation between government and agriculture.

12. Show how *each* of the following influenced the economic development of Russia: (a) New Economic Policy of Lenin, (b) the Five Year Plans of Stalin, (c) the opening to cultivation of new farm lands in Siberia by Khrushchev.

13. Explain *each* of the following terms as related to the history of Russia: (a) Duma, (b) Soviet, (c) kulak, (d) purge.

14. (a) Describe some of the ways that international communism seeks to expand its influence in the world. (b) What steps have the Western powers taken to counteract this influence?

15. "Dictatorship has been the rule of the Russian people in the 19th as well as in the 20th Century." Show how this statement is true by comparing the Czarist and Communist governments in their attitude toward (a) civil liberties, (b) freedom of political expression, (c) repression methods adopted, (d) control of education.

16. "The Communist Party is the Russian government, the Russian government is the Communist Party." Prove the truth of this statement, showing how it is possible for a small number of people to control the vast majority.

17. Describe the accomplishments of the Communists in the fields of (a) industry, (b) agriculture, (c) education, (d) civil rights.

18. "Russia today is larger and more powerful than was Russia in 1914." Give facts to prove or disprove this statement.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST 2

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



- Which of the following was a provision of the Munich Pact of 1938?
(a) Sudetenland was added to Germany, (b) Alsace-Lorraine was returned to France, (c) Danzig was incorporated into Germany, (d) Austria was annexed by Germany. 1.
- Which of the following did *not* contribute to the rise of Hitler in Germany? (a) German nationalism, (b) economic distress in Germany, (c) Hitler's military achievements in the First World War, (d) the loss of territory by Germany under the Versailles Treaty. 2.
- One of the main characteristics of a totalitarian state is (a) a representative parliament, (b) a state church, (c) the absence of civil liberties, (d) the existence of many political parties. 3.
- An important factor in the defeat of both Napoleon and Hitler in Russia was the Russian (a) air force, (b) climate, (c) navy, (d) scientific skill. 4.

5. Which one of these has become associated with the term "appeasement?" (a) Congress of Vienna (1815), (b) Treaty of Versailles (1919), (c) Munich Pact (1938), (d) San Francisco Conference (1945). 5.
6. Germany's final seizure of the Czechoslovakian Republic was a factor leading to (a) the Boer War, (b) the Franco-Prussian War, (c) World War I, (d) World War II. 6.
7. At the close of World War I, Germany became (a) a republic, (b) an empire, (c) a dictatorship, (d) divided into East and West governments. 7.
8. *Mein Kampf*, written by Hitler, was a (a) novel about postwar Germany, (b) biography of Bismarck, (c) history of Germany, (d) program for German control of Europe. 8.
9. The Weimar Republic fell because (a) Germany was expelled from the League of Nations, (b) of the depression of 1929, (c) Russia attacked Germany, (d) France threatened to occupy the Ruhr Valley. 9.
10. Which is *not* associated with Nazi Germany? (a) the swastika, (b) storm troopers, (c) hammer and sickle, (d) Gestapo. 10.
11. A totalitarian state is one in which (a) all people have the right to vote, (b) all religions are permitted, (c) all phases of life are controlled by the government, (d) all education is controlled by private corporations. 11.
12. The Dawes and Young Plans of 1924 and 1929 dealt with (a) naval disarmament, (b) land disarmament, (c) war debts, (d) entrance of Germany into the League of Nations. 12.
13. The Locarno Pact provided for (a) the disarmament of France, (b) the entrance of Germany into the League of Nations, (c) the "freezing" of Germany's eastern boundaries, (d) a United States guarantee of French security. 13.
14. The term "putsch" means the same as (a) appeasement, (b) coup d'état, (c) "big lie," (d) "brown shirts." 14.
15. The Gestapo was to Heinrich Himmler what propaganda was to (a) Hermann Goering, (b) Martin Neimoller, (c) Joseph Goebbels, (d) Admiral von Raeder. 15.
16. Nazi policies included all of the following *except* (a) autarky, (b) lebensraum, (c) anschluss, (d) appeasement. 16.
17. The Nazi attitude toward race was that (a) all races were equal, (b) there was no such thing as a "pure" race, (c) the Aryan race was the superior one, (d) inferior races should be permitted. 17.
18. In religious matters, the Nazis (a) made Catholicism the official religion of Germany, (b) outlawed the Protestant Churches, (c) attempted to bring the Church under the control of the State, (d) separated Church from State. 18.
19. Hitler solved the German unemployment problem by all of the following means *except* (a) revival of conscription, (b) ending child labor, (c) public works programs, (d) dismissal of women from industry. 19.

20. The Siegfried Line was (a) the military fortification built in the Rhineland, (b) the program of self-sufficiency advocated by the Nazis, (c) the fortifications in the Sudeten region of Czechoslovakia, (d) the line of fortifications facing the Polish frontier. 20.

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER TEST

Below are listed four periods of history. In the space provided write the letter indicating the time period in which each of the events below took place.

I

- 1. Germany joins the League of Nations
- 2. Germany leaves the League of Nations
- 3. the German Empire created
- 4. the Italian Republic formed
- 5. Russo-German Non-Aggression Pact
- 6. the Fourth Reich
- 7. Mussolini becomes Premier of Italy
- 8. Ethiopia conquered by Italy
- 9. Libya conquered by Italy
- 10. death of Stalin

II

- a. before 1914
- b. from the outbreak of World War I to rise of Hitler to power.
- c. from the rise of Hitler to end of World War II
- d. since the end of World War II

ESSAY QUESTIONS 2

1. Show how *each* of the following was a factor in the rise of Nazism in Germany: (a) the Versailles Treaty, (b) economic conditions in 1929-32, (c) the Weimar Constitution.

2. Describe the attitude of the Nazis toward *three* of the following: (a) labor, (b) minority groups, (c) education and science, (d) industry, (e) religion, (f) civil liberties.

3. "The pupil learned from and then outdistanced the teacher." Show the truth of this statement by referring to Nazi rule in Germany and Fascist rule in Italy.

4. The First World War was fought to spread democracy, yet dictators rose in many European countries after the war ended. What political and economic factors contributed to the growth of dictatorships after 1919?

5. Compare dictatorships with democracies with respect to (a) political party system, (b) legislative powers, (c) separation of powers in government, (d) education.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST 3

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. Which one of the following political parties ruled Italy from 1922-1945? (a) Communist, (b) Falange, (c) Fascist, (d) Nazi. 1.
2. Which was supported by Mussolini? (a) an alliance with Nazi Germany, (b) a policy of free trade, (c) non-intervention in the Spanish Civil War, (d) nationalistic movements in Ethiopia and Libya. 2.
3. The policies of Mussolini's government were characterized by (a) self-determination for the peoples of Africa, (b) adoption of laissez-faire, (c) establishment of collective farms, (d) denial of civil liberties. 3.
4. In Fascist Italy there was (a) no censorship, (b) freedom of discussion in schools, (c) prohibition of strikes and lockouts, (d) prohibition of secret police. 4.
5. By the Lateran Treaties of 1929, the Pope and Mussolini agreed that (a) the state was to control marriage and divorce, (b) the Pope was to become the ruler of Vatican City, (c) there would be no religious instruction in the schools, (d) the Catholic Church would be disestablished in Italy. 5.
6. After World War I, Italy gained (a) Libya, (b) Nice and Savoy, (c) Trentino, (d) Tunisia. 6.
7. All of the following contributed to the rise of fascism in Italy *except* (a) dissatisfaction with the Treaty of Versailles, (b) strong central government, (c) fear of Communist expansion, (d) unemployment. 7.
8. The leader of the Italian Fascist Party was called (a) Der Fuehrer, (b) Il Duce, (c) El Commandante, (d) Caudillo. 8.
9. During Fascist control Italy held all *except* (a) Dodecanese Islands, (b) Albania, (c) Ethiopia, (d) Libya. 9.
10. At present, Italy is a (a) limited kingdom, (b) absolute monarchy, (c) republic, (d) federal state. 10.
11. The largest Communist party outside the Iron Curtain is found in (a) England, (b) France, (c) Spain, (d) Italy. 11.
12. Italy is a member of all the following organizations *except* (a) the United Nations, (b) European Steel and Iron Community, (c) Cominform, (d) North Atlantic Treaty Organization. 12.
13. Problems facing Italy include (a) lack of essential raw materials, (b) existence of strong Left and Right political parties, (c) low standard of living, (d) all of these. 13.
14. Fascist hopes for "mare nostrum" referred to (a) adoption of a liberal constitution, (b) dethroning the king, (c) making the Mediterranean an "Italian lake", (d) withdrawal from the League of Nations. 14.

15. One thing that postwar Italy, France and Japan have in common is (a) all became republics, (b) all extended the right to vote to women, (c) all lost territory in the peace treaties, (d) all were disarmed after the war. 15.

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

- 1. Italy was dissatisfied with the Treaty of Versailles because she received no
- 2. The founder of the Italian Fascist Party was
- 3. The "March on Rome" led King Victor Emmanuel III to appoint Mussolini as
- 4. All employers and workers in Fascist Italy were required to belong to, dominated by the government.
- 5. To make up for lack of coal and iron in Italy, Mussolini proposed to develop its resources.
- 6. The independent Papal State is called
- 7. The state religion of Italy is
- 8. Italy recovered after the war with the help of
- 9. The former Italian colony of became independent in 1951.
- 10. The basic form of livelihood in Italy is

ESSAY QUESTIONS 3

1. (a) Describe the part played by Italians in the First and Second World Wars. (b) Discuss the effects of each war upon Italy.
2. Show how nationalism played an important part in the history of Italy under Mussolini.
3. How did each of the following lead to the rise of a dictatorship in Italy after World War I? (a) economic conditions, (b) weakness of parliamentary government, (c) lack of a democratic tradition, (d) fear of communism.
4. Compare Fascist and Communist policies toward (a) religion, (b) education, (c) civil liberties, (d) workers, (e) factory owners.
5. Describe the reasons for Italian entrance into World War II.
6. What changes have taken place in Italy since 1945 with regard to (a) type of government, (b) suffrage, (c) relations with the Western countries?
7. Describe two internal and two external problems facing Italy today.




The Second World War

1939-1945

1. Basic Causes of the War

The factors that had caused the first World War had not been settled by the treaties ending that war, or by events in the next twenty years. In general, these same factors and forces continued during the post-war years and laid the groundwork for the second World War. These basic causes may be summarized as follows:

Cause	Examples	Results
Nationalism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Nazi Germany's resentment of Treaty of Versailles. 2. Italian Fascist desire to play the role of Great Power. 3. Japan's doctrine of "Asia for the Asiatics." 	The nationalist theory of a "superior race" in Germany, the Italian dream of "mare nostrum" (making the Mediterranean an Italian sea) and Japanese chauvinism (extreme patriotism) created the belief that "war is a justifiable exercise of national sovereign power."
Imperialism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Japan's conquest of Manchuria (1931) and the attack on China (1937). 2. Italian conquest of Ethiopia (1936). 3. German annexation of Austria, 1938; Sudetenland, 1938; Czechoslovakia, 1939. 4. Desire of Germany to reacquire her lost colonies, and Italy to gain what she did not receive at Versailles. 	These imperialist conquests showed the lack of unity between England and France on how to deal with such crises; it also showed the weaknesses of the League of Nations. It strengthened the determination for aggression of these and other countries.

Militarism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Re-arming of Germany after 1934. 2. Japanese building up of navy after 1935. 3. Failure of League of Nations to reduce armaments which led to an arms race. 4. New weapons and techniques of warfare made nations, particularly Germany, confident of easy victory. 	<p>The arms build-up increased international tensions and suspicions. The French relied on their Maginot Line to stop any German attack, not expecting that the Maginot Line would be outflanked. The English moved too slowly in their rearmament program to defy the Nazis until 1939.</p>
International Alliances	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The "Anti-Comintern" Pact of Germany and Japan in 1936. 2. The Rome-Berlin Axis, 1936. 3. The Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis, 1939. 4. Russo-German Non-Aggression Pact, 1939. 5. Little Entente, 1921 (Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Yugoslavia). 6. French alliance with England (1938) and French alliances with Rumania and Yugoslavia. 7. Hungary and Bulgaria drew closer to the Axis 	<p>The Axis powers were in closer alliance than their Western neighbors. The success of one of them gave courage to others to try for themselves.</p> 
Weaknesses of the League of Nations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. League of Nations inability to halt aggression in Manchuria (1931), Ethiopia (1936) and Austria (1938). 	<p>England and France could not agree upon joint action against aggression. The Fascist policy of "divide and conquer" was successful. The League was weakened by the absence of the U. S. and Russia (the latter was a member from 1934-39).</p>
American Neutrality Legislation	<p>Laws of 1935-37 made it illegal to sell or transport arms or lend money to any country at war.</p>	<p>America's determination to remain neutral led Fascist nations to believe America would not help the democracies.</p>

2. Immediate Causes of the War

German Aggression. Every time Hitler violated the peace treaties he cried: "Germany wants no more." This was true of his rearmament program, his remilitarization of the Rhineland, his annexation of Austria, and his acquisition of the Sudeten section of Czechoslovakia. Each time the democratic nations yielded, hoping that this appeasement would satisfy Germany and prevent war.

All this did not satisfy Hitler. Five months after Munich (1938), Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia. The Western states began to doubt their policy and decided on stronger measures to stop Hitler in the future.

Russo-German Non-Aggression Pact. In August, 1939, Russia suddenly signed a non-aggression treaty with Germany that freed Hitler from the danger of a two-front war, and agreed to divide East European areas, particularly Poland, between them. This strengthened Hitler's hand in his demands upon Poland.

Guarantees of Polish Independence. Rather late, the Western democracies awoke to the potential dangers of Fascist aggression. England and France signed a triple alliance with Poland which guaranteed their independence and territorial integrity, by war if necessary, against any aggression or threat.

Hitler's Ultimatum to Poland. Secure from a rear attack, Hitler demanded German annexation of the city of Danzig and German control of a strip of land across the Polish corridor which separated East Prussia from the main part of Germany. When Poland refused these demands, Hitler marched in on September 1, 1939.

3. Early Nazi Successes — 1939-41

Conquest of Poland. The German armies quickly overran Poland. The new and terrifying *blitzkrieg* (lightning war) spread havoc among the Polish defenders. It involved heavy air bombing of fortifications, roads, railways, industrial plants and power stations, and in the resulting confusion, a fast infantry advance spearheaded by a big mobile force of armored tanks. Within a month Poland, including its capital, Warsaw, was conquered. That unfortunate country was then divided. Russia annexed the eastern half, Germany the western half. Poland had again ceased to exist, following its fourth partition.

Russian Annexations. Within a few weeks following the collapse of Poland, Russia secured naval and air bases from Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, before taking over in 1940. Then the Russians demanded the destruction of the Finnish line of fortifications (the

Mannerheim Line), and the cession of Finnish territory to Russia. When Finland refused, Russia attacked. In spite of stubborn resistance, Finland was defeated by March, 1940, and forced to cede 16,000 square miles of territory and 400,000 people to Russia. For this act, Russia was expelled from the League of Nations.

The War on the Western Front—1939-40. The Western states were poorly prepared for war, particularly an offensive war. Their planes and tanks were few, and their plan of warfare depended on defensive, rather than offensive tactics. Behind their Maginot Line, the French waited, supremely confident they could hold back any German attack. Throughout the winter of 1939-40 the war was largely patrol activity and the dropping of propaganda leaflets, with no serious fighting. It was called a "phony war."

Blitzkrieg in the West. This inaction ended suddenly in April, 1940, when in rapid succession the following events took place:

1. The Germans occupied Denmark, launched an air and naval attack and aided by a traitor named Vidkun Quisling conquered Norway.

2. In spite of British naval assistance to the Norwegians, Germany dominated all Scandinavia and threatened North Atlantic shipping, as well as Great Britain.

This danger to England led to the resignation of Neville Chamberlain as Prime Minister and the appointment of Winston Churchill as war leader. Churchill became one of the leading statesmen in the war period; he united and inspired the peoples of his own and other countries to final victory.

3. On May 10, 1940, the Low Countries (Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg) were attacked and quickly overrun. The Germans pushed through Belgium, outflanking the Maginot Line, and rushed westward to the English Channel, thus cutting off the main French armies from the Allied troops in Belgium. The British were able, by heroic measures, to evacuate about 225,000 English and 110,000 other soldiers from Dunkirk, abandoning, however, almost all their guns, munitions and supplies. The Germans rolled through France and occupied Paris in June.

4. Italy, confident that these German successes meant the end of the war, declared war against France and England.

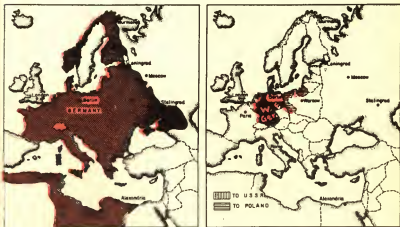
5. Some French ministers and army officers refused to quit and fled to England to set up a French government-in-exile; the rest asked for an armistice which they signed on June 21, 1940. The northern half of France was occupied by the Germans; the southern half had some self-government under the control of Marshal Petain and Premier Laval, both Nazi puppets. Fascist methods were

introduced—political parties and trade unions were suppressed, civil liberties abolished, force and terrorism were everywhere. This Vichy government cooperated with the Nazis in hunting down all supporters of the "Free French," led by General Charles de Gaulle from his London headquarters.

The Battle for Britain. Britain now stood alone against the Nazis. Germany prepared to invade Britain. Hitler sent his huge air force, the *Luftwaffe*, against the island kingdom, to "soften it up." For five months, England was subjected to air attack which spread destruction over the whole country. England held out. The Royal Air Force destroyed more than 3,000 German planes, raided German bases, and destroyed many of the invasion barges being prepared.

Nazi Success in the Balkans and Africa. Although the Italian efforts to conquer Greece in October, 1940, failed, German armies quickly overran that nation. Yugoslavia was conquered; Bulgaria became an ally of the Axis powers.

In Africa, Italian attempts to invade Egypt from Libya were successful only at first. The English attacked the Italians, and drove



GERMANY AT THE HEIGHT OF HER POWER IN 1942 AND AFTER WORLD WAR II. At one time the Nazi swastika flew over much of Europe and North Africa. Then, swiftly, this vast empire crumbled into nothingness. The map at the right shows Germany after her defeat.

them out of Egypt, Ethiopia, Eritrea and Somaliland. Hitler then sent General Rommel to Africa. He pushed the British out of Tripoli and Libya and invaded Egypt again.

Germans Attack Russia. German efforts to secure a firm alliance with Russia in 1940 failed because Russia demanded more than Hitler felt she should get. Hitler wanted the Ukrainian wheat fields and the Caucasus oil wells, so he decided upon a surprise attack on his ally. Russia, not trusting Germany, encouraged Yugoslav resistance to Germany, and negotiated a neutrality treaty with Japan. Thus protected in Asia, Russia was ready for Hitler's attack in Europe.

On June 22, 1941, the Nazi blitzkrieg overran the East Polish territory, the former Baltic provinces, and pushed deep into Russia. Within six months Germany held half a million square miles of Soviet territory, including almost all of the Ukraine.

But the knockout blow did not come. The size of Russia, the severe winter, the location of Russian factories in the Urals, and foreign assistance, enabled Russia to resist and even prepare a counteroffensive.

4. *America Enters the War*

The United States Prepares Its Defense. Although President Franklin D. Roosevelt urged neutrality upon the American people, in spite of their opposition to the Nazis, he prepared the country for possible involvement in the war. By these steps, President Roosevelt prepared the United States for war and gave financial assistance to those democratic countries fighting the Rome-Berlin Axis.

1. *Revision of neutrality laws.* Congress was called into special session and in 1939 adopted the "cash and carry" laws which permitted belligerents to purchase war material providing they paid in cash and transported it in their own ships. Since the Allies controlled the seas, this law helped them more than it did the Axis powers.
2. *Adoption of conscription.* For the first time in its history, the United States adopted a peace-time draft in 1940.
3. *Destroyer-naval base deal.* The serious damages to British shipping caused by German submarines led the United States to give 50 destroyers to England in return for naval and air bases in the Atlantic Ocean from Newfoundland to Trinidad (1940).
4. *Lend-Lease.* As French and English military purchases increased, their ability to pay decreased. Congress adopted the

Lend-Lease Act. By this law, the President was authorized to lend or lease all necessary materials to any nation whose defense was considered necessary to the defense of the United States. Before the program ended in 1946, the United States had spent some \$50 billions on such war goods.

5. *Protection of these shipments.* To protect ships hauling supplies to Europe from "the arsenal of democracy," naval patrols by American ships were authorized.
6. *Atlantic Charter.* In a meeting between Roosevelt and Churchill in August, 1941, a statement of war aims by the two countries was drawn up (see page 420).
7. *American occupation of Greenland and Iceland.* These important islands were occupied by American troops in 1941, to keep them from becoming stepping stones in a German attack on the western continent.

American Relations with Japan. Japan's dream of a Greater East Asia under her domination seemed closer to realization with France and England at war with the Nazis. Japan moved into Indo-China and Thailand. Only one major power stood in her way—the United States.

Relations between the two countries were not very good because of differences over (1) size of navies (the Americans were unwilling to recognize Japan's demands for equality), (2) immigration policies (the United States had passed the Japanese Exclusion Act in 1924), and (3) Japanese schemes for the Far East (the United States had helped the Chinese in their "undeclared war" with Japan since 1937).



THE BIG THREE — ROOSEVELT, CHURCHILL AND STALIN. The wartime leaders of the United Nations met to plan the course of the war against the Axis powers. Their planning and strategy helped the Allies to obtain a crushing victory over the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.

While the Japanese assumed an aggressive attitude toward Burma, Malaya and the Dutch East Indies, the United States broke off trade relations and froze Japanese credits. Diplomats of the two countries were seeking a possible solution.

The Attack on Pearl Harbor. The Japanese Government, under the Premiership of General Tojo, determined to destroy American naval power in the Pacific. While diplomatic negotiations took place in Washington, a Japanese fleet steamed secretly toward the important American naval base of Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. There, on December 7, 1941, Japanese airmen badly damaged or destroyed a large part of the American Pacific fleet, and won temporary naval supremacy in the Pacific.

The United States immediately declared war on Japan. Britain, Holland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and several Latin American countries followed the American lead. Several days later, Japan's Axis partners, Germany, Italy, Rumania, Hungary and Bulgaria, declared war on the United States. The Second World War had become a global conflict. Every major power and many minor ones were directly involved.

VICTORY IN EUROPE

Year	Event	Importance
1941-45	Naval war in Atlantic.	German submarine menace defeated.
1942	Landings of American and English troops in North Africa.	German and Italian armies defeated in Africa.
1943	German defeat at Stalingrad.	A turning point in German invasion of Russia.
1943	American and English troops invade Sicily and Italy.	Italy surrendered, then fought on the side of the Allies.
1944	Invasion of Normandy (northern France) and opening of the second front.	France freed from German control; German armies pushed back into Germany.
1944-45	Battle of the Bulge in Belgium.	Temporary victory for the Germans blunted by superior Allied forces.

1945	Russian troops take Poland.	Germany was caught in a vast pincers movement — the Russians from the east, the Americans and other Allied forces from the west.
1945	Yalta Conference.	Plans laid by Russia, England and the United States for defeat of Germany.
1945	V-E Day — May 8.	End of German resistance.

VICTORY IN THE PACIFIC

Year	Event	Importance
1942	Battles of Midway Island and the Coral Sea.	Japanese naval losses by American planes and aircraft carriers halted further Japanese expansion.
1942	Manila occupied by Japan.	Loss of Philippine Islands; Dutch East Indies, Burma, Malaya plus many Pacific Islands came under Japanese control.
1942	Battle of Guadalcanal.	Americans established a beachhead in the Solomon Islands.
1943	Tarawa in the Gilberts occupied.	Stepping stone to the Japanese bases.
1944	Battle of Leyte Gulf.	The beginning of the reconquest of the Philippines.
1945	Battles of Luzon and Okinawa.	Philippines reconquered; the Allies were near the Japanese home islands.
1945	Potsdam conference.	Plans drawn up for defeat of Japan by the United States, England and Russia.
1945	Hiroshima and Nagasaki A-bombed.	First atom bombs cause horrible destruction.
1945	Russia declares war on Japan.	Pushed Japanese back in Manchuria.
1945	V-J Day — Sept. 2	Formal surrender terms signed.

5. Planning for Peace During the War

The Four Freedoms. In 1941, eleven months before Pearl Harbor, President Franklin Roosevelt said in a message to Congress: "We look forward to a world founded on four essential freedoms." These were (a) freedom of speech, (b) freedom of worship, (c) freedom from fear, (d) freedom from want. This was the first step in the formation of the war aims of the democratic countries that eventually led to the creation of the United Nations.

The Atlantic Charter. In August, 1941, a meeting between Roosevelt and Churchill resulted in a statement of the aims of both countries for a new world order. These have often been compared to Wilson's Fourteen Points (World War I).

Fourteen Points	Atlantic Charter
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Abolition of secret diplomacy. 2. Freedom of the seas. 3. Reduction of trade barriers. 4. Disarmament. 5. Settlement of colonial claims. 6-13. Self-determination for Europe. 14. General association of nations. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No territorial acquisitions. 2. Self-determination of peoples. 3. Peoples to choose their own government. 4. Free international trade. 5. Improved labor standards. 6. Freedom from fear and want. 7. Freedom of the seas. 8. Permanent system of general security with limitations of armaments.

Declaration by the United Nations. Representatives of 26 nations at war with one or more of the Axis powers signed a "Declaration by the United Nations" on January 1, 1942, by which they pledged themselves to defeat the Axis and make no separate armistice or peace. The United Nations accepted the principles of the Atlantic Charter.

Inter-Allied Conferences.

1. **Moscow Conference** (October, 1943). The Foreign Ministers of the United States, Great Britain and Russia pledged their nations to joint action in the formation of an international organization to maintain peace.
2. **Cairo Conference** (1943). Roosevelt, Churchill and Chiang Kai-shek decided that Japan, after unconditional surrender, should give up all conquered territory.
3. **Teheran Conference** (November-December, 1943). Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin met to plan the Allied invasion of Europe.

and to invite all nations to end tyranny in the world, and to join a world family of nations.

4. *Dumbarton Oaks Conference* (1944). Representatives of the United States, England, Russia and China met to prepare the first draft of the United Nations Charter.
5. *Yalta Conference* (February, 1945). Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin met to draw up plans for a free Europe after the war, and to invite nations to the San Francisco Conference.
6. *San Francisco Conference* (1945). In spite of the sudden death of President Roosevelt, the conference to adopt the U.N. Charter met as planned. It was adopted and signed by the 50 nations present.
7. *Potsdam Conference* (July-August, 1945). The United States, Great Britain and Russia agreed on the final steps in the war in the Pacific, and put the Yalta agreements regarding Germany into operation.

6. Results of the War

1. Overthrow and end of German, Italian and Japanese Fascism.
2. Terrible cost of the war—military expenditures of the warring nations totaled over a 1000 billion dollars, property damage twice that amount; civilian and military deaths totaled 22 millions and wounded, 34 millions.
3. Dislocation of millions of people; creation of serious refugee problems.
4. Formation of the United Nations, with the United States abandoning its traditional policy of isolation.
5. Emergence of the United States and Russia as the two greatest powers in the world.
6. New destructive weapons tried out in the war—atom bomb, airplane, rockets, flame-throwers, guided missiles, and others.
7. Triumph of nationalism as seen in the creation of many new countries, particularly in Asia.
8. Serious economic problems of rehabilitation and recovery for many European countries.
9. Increased danger of the Communist threat. (The Cold War.)
10. Problems involving the defeated nations—a divided Germany, an occupied Japan, treaties with the other countries.
11. Development of Russian satellite empire.
12. Creation of democratic governments in West Germany, Italy, Japan.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. Two nations that were neutral in both World War I and World War II were (a) Finland and Norway, (b) Belgium and Denmark, (c) The Netherlands and Turkey, (d) Sweden and Switzerland. 1. _____
2. Before the United States entered World War II she (a) was strictly neutral, (b) sent troops to help the British, (c) established submarine bases in Newfoundland, (d) adopted peacetime draft. 2. _____
3. "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat." This statement was made by (a) Winston Churchill, (b) Adolf Hitler, (c) Franklin D. Roosevelt, (d) Josef Stalin. 3. _____
4. Which event preceding World War II occurred *last*? (a) the conquest of Ethiopia by Italy, (b) the invasion of Czechoslovakia by Hitler, (c) the beginning of the Spanish Civil War, (d) the invasion of Manchuria by Japan. 4. _____
5. Which pair of countries was an ally of the United States in World War I, and an enemy in World War II? (a) Germany and Japan, (b) Italy and Japan, (c) Soviet Russia and Japan, (d) Austria and France. 5. _____
6. Which of the following events in World War II occurred *first*? (a) the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, (b) the German invasion of Russia, (c) the Italian withdrawal from the war, (d) the Allied victory in North Africa. 6. _____
7. Which of the following was used in World War II but not in World War I? (a) radar, (b) tanks, (c) airplanes, (d) submarines. 7. _____
8. The United States entered World War II because of (a) the invasion of Poland, (b) the fall of France, (c) Germany's attacks on American shipping in the Atlantic, (d) the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. 8. _____
9. Hitler invaded Russia because he (a) no longer trusted Stalin, (b) wanted the vast natural resources of Russia, (c) thought he could mislead the Western powers by directing his attack eastward, (d) had made peace with England. 9. _____
10. The first of the Axis countries to surrender was (a) Italy, (b) Germany, (c) Bulgaria, (d) Japan. 10. _____
11. Nations that regarded themselves as "have-not" countries before 1939 included all of the following *except* (a) Germany, (b) Japan, (c) France, (d) Italy. 11. _____
12. The anti-Comintern Pact of 1939 included all the following countries *except* (a) Germany, (b) Japan, (c) Russia, (d) Italy. 12. _____
13. Russia was expelled from the League of Nations because (a) she had signed a non-aggression treaty with Germany, (b) she had built up her armaments considerably, (c) she had attacked and

- defeated Finland, (d) she refused to give up the Polish territory she had acquired. 13.
14. American steps taken before entering World War II included all of the following *except* (a) adoption of peacetime conscription, (b) revision of neutrality laws, (c) occupation of Greenland and Iceland, (d) signing of an alliance with Britain. 14.
15. The incident that finally led Japan to sue for peace in 1945 was the (a) entrance of Russia into the war against her, (b) the dropping of atom bombs by American planes, (c) the loss of the Philippines, (d) defeats in China. 15.

MATCHING TEST

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in column II that best fits each item in column I.

- | I | II |
|--|--|
| 1. blitzkrieg | a. United States would furnish supplies to fight the war |
| 2. "phony war" | b. German air force |
| 3. Luftwaffe | c. Allied invasion of German-held Europe |
| 4. lend-lease | d. destroy everything while retreating |
| 5. "arsenal of democracy" | e. betrayer of homeland |
| 6. D-Day | f. Munich Pact of 1938 |
| 7. Maginot | g. lightning war of the Germans |
| 8. "peace in our time" | h. American help to Allies |
| 9. Quisling | i. Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor |
| 10. "a day that will live in infamy" | j. inactive period of World War II |
| | k. French line of fortifications before 1939 |

ESSAY QUESTIONS

- Show one way in which each of *three* of the following differed in World War I and World War II. (a) basic causes, (b) lineup of warring nations, (c) methods of warfare, (d) destruction caused, (e) treatment of defeated countries.
- Define or explain each of the following terms with reference to World War II: blitzkrieg, a Quisling, Dunkirk, Vichy Government, lend-lease, "phony war."
- Compare the principles of the Atlantic Charter with those of the Fourteen Points.
- Describe the part played by each of the following in World War II: Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Charles de Gaulle, Douglas MacArthur, Dwight Eisenhower.
- Trace the steps by which the United States prepared itself for eventual entry into World War II.
- Why is World War II often called "a global war?"
- Describe the importance in World War II of (a) the role of the civilian population, (b) propaganda, (c) the part played by women.



The United Nations

Once again the various nations of the world set up an organization to maintain international peace, develop friendly relations among nations, and achieve international cooperation on economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems.

1. Organization of the United Nations

There are six principal organs of the United Nations: (1) the General Assembly, (2) the Security Council, (3) the Economic and Social Council, (4) the Trusteeship Council, (5) the International Court of Justice, and (6) the Secretariat.

The General Assembly. It consists of all the members of the organization, each member having one vote, regardless of size, wealth or population. It meets at least once a year and may be called into special session. It may recommend action on important questions to the Security Council by a two-thirds vote, but it has little power to act itself unless the Security Council fails to act.

At present there are 82 members in the United Nations—almost all the countries of the world. The only major country not a member is Germany. China's seat is held by the Nationalists on Formosa (who represent a fraction of the Chinese population) instead of the Communists in China. Each year the Assembly elects a new president. In the 12th session (1957-58) Sir Leslie Munroe of New Zealand held this office.

The Assembly serves as an international forum where all nations, big and small, are equal in voting power. The Assembly elects the six non-permanent members of the Security Council, draws up the budget, helps to elect the judges of the World Court, elects members of other agencies of the United Nations, and elects the Secretary-General. The Assembly may recommend measures to its members when the action of the Security Council is prevented by a veto. This happened in the Suez invasion of 1956 (see page 451).

The Security Council. It consists of eleven members, five permanent (the United States, France, Britain, Russia and Nationalist China), and six non-permanent, elected for a two-year term by the Assembly. It has two main functions: (1) to see that disputes are settled peacefully and (2) to stop aggression if peaceful settlement fails. It may take one or all of the following steps to carry out these functions: investigate, negotiate, and arbitrate a dispute; seek a judicial decision by the World Court; use sanctions or force.

Decisions of the Security Council on important actions must be reached by a majority vote of seven, which must include all five of the permanent members, even if one of them is concerned in the matter. Thus each of the Big Five has a veto. The veto by one permanent member can stop action wanted by the majority. This has proved to be the greatest stumbling block in the U. N.

A Military Staff Committee was established to help the Council organize its armed forces, regulate armaments, and plan for disarmament. An Atomic Energy Commission (merged with the Disarmament Commission in 1952) was created to supervise the production of atomic energy for civilian use. Neither committee has been able to carry out its functions because of disagreements in the Council and Assembly.

The Economic and Social Council. It is concerned with the development of higher world-wide standards of living, the promotion of world-wide full employment, the improvement of international cultural and educational cooperation, and the creation of a universal respect for human rights and freedoms.

The 18 members of the ECOSOC are elected by the General Assembly for a period of three years. It may make studies and submit recommendations to the Assembly for possible adoption. Among its specialized agencies are:

1. *The Food and Agricultural Organization*, headquartered in Rome, to make food production efficient and plentiful, and raise standards of nutrition of all people.
2. *The International Monetary Fund* (Washington), a banking agency to help member nations pay foreign debts, stabilize currencies, and promote international trade.
3. *The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development* (Washington), to provide loans for reconstruction and development of resources.
4. *The Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization* (Paris), to promote understanding among the various cultures of the world.
5. *International Labor Organization* (Geneva), to improve labor conditions.
6. *World Health Organization* (Geneva), to control epidemics and disease, and improve health and living conditions.
7. *International Civil Aviation Organization* (Montreal), to set standards and rules for international flying.
8. *International Atomic Energy Agency* (Vienna), to promote peaceful and prevent military use of atomic energy.
9. *Universal Postal Union* and the *International Telecommunications Union*, to promote efficient postal services and communications.

10. *World Meteorological Organization*, to assist in the efficient exchange of weather information.

Two other agencies have finished their work and have gone out of existence — the Relief and Rehabilitation Agency (UNRRA) and the International Refugee Organization (IRO).

Trusteeship Council. Its duty is to supervise the handling of former Axis colonies, and to recommend self-government when they are ready for it. For example, the United States has been delegated to control islands in the Pacific, under the supervision of the U. N.

International Court of Justice. Its duty is to settle problems of international law in disputes between nations. It has 15 members.

Secretariat. This permanent staff draws up the agenda for meetings of the Assembly and Council, handles correspondence, publishes reports, and maintains contact with all agencies of the U.N. Dag Hammarskjöld of Sweden was re-elected Secretary-General for a second five-year term in 1957.

Budget of the U.N. Expenses for 1958 totaled \$55 millions. Member countries contribute on a scale determined by the Assembly. In the first ten years of its existence U.N. agencies spent about one and a half billion dollars; the United States contributed more than half.

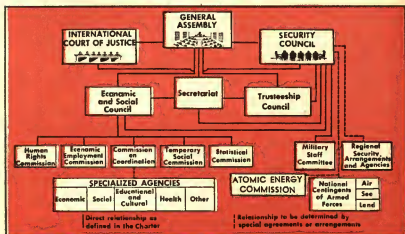
UNITED NATIONS COMPARED WITH THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

United Nations	League of Nations
1. All major countries (except Germany) are members.	1. United States never joined, Russia was a member for only 5 years.
2. Majority vote of 7 required on Security Council (all of the permanent members included).	2. Unanimous vote of all members of the Security Council required.
3. Not connected with any of the peace treaties after World War II.	3. As part of the Versailles Treaty, it was associated with the opposition to the peace treaties in many countries.
4. Provision for a Military Staff Committee with a permanent army (not yet in existence).	4. No provision for international police force to uphold decisions.
5. Creation of Economic and Social Council, designed to wipe out war by eliminating basic economical and social causes.	5. Uncoordinated approach to these basic problems — no agency to supervise steps.

2. Accomplishments of the United Nations

A. Settlement of International Disputes

1. *Iran.* The U.N. settled a dispute between the U.S.S.R. and Iran over Russian occupation troops after the end of World War II. At Iran's request, the Security Council had Soviet troops withdrawn.
2. *Greece.* As a result of investigations of guerrilla warfare by special U.N. representatives, the northern borders of Greece were pacified. Albania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia were sharply criticized by an Assembly resolution for giving aid to Greek guerrillas. American military assistance has since enabled the Greek government to establish firm control over the nation.



ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS. The specialized agencies have no set relationship with U. N. bodies; their arrangements are worked out to fit each special job they undertake. Membership in the U. N. is open to all peace-loving nations which accept the obligations contained in the Charter and, in the opinion of the organization, are willing and able to fulfill them.

3. *Indonesia.* After the war and occupation by Japan, a part of the Dutch East Indies proclaimed its independence. War broke out between the Dutch and the natives. Australia and India brought the dispute before the Security Council, which worked out a political settlement. Indonesia became independent in 1949, and joined the United Nations the following year.
4. *Palestine.* A special session of the General Assembly was called at the request of Britain to consider the future of Pal-

estine after the British announced they would surrender their mandate obtained after World War I. The Assembly recommended that Palestine be divided into separate Jewish and Arab states. On May 15, 1948, the day after Britain gave up the mandate, the new state of Israel was proclaimed.

Subsequently the Arab League invaded Israel from three sides. A Truce Commission, headed by Count Folke Bernadotte of Sweden, was appointed by the Council to halt this fighting. Bernadotte was assassinated in 1948, and Dr. Ralph Bunche of the United States was appointed in his place. He secured an armistice between Israel and her Arab neighbors. In 1949, Israel joined the United Nations.

5. *Kashmir-Pakistan-India.* A dispute between India and Pakistan over the State of Kashmir threatened to break out into war. A U.N. commission stopped the fighting. India incorporated the section of Kashmir that it occupied in 1957, in spite of Pakistan's objections. The U.N. has not yet succeeded in holding a plebiscite in the disputed territory.
6. *Korea.* Korea had been occupied by Communist forces in the north and American forces in the south from 1945 to 1949. Russian refusal to permit elections in the entire peninsula led to the formation of a South Korean Republic after the election there in 1948. A North Korean People's Republic was created in the Soviet zone.

The attack on South Korea on June 25, 1950, by North Korea was a direct military challenge to U.N. authority. The Security Council (with Russia absent, because of its boycott of the U.N.) found North Korea guilty of a breach of peace. On June 27, President Truman, in line with a U.N. resolution, ordered American naval and air support and ground troops to South Korea. The Council called on all U.N. members to assist South Korea. Some 16 countries did.

In November a large force of Chinese Communists joined the North Koreans, and drove the outnumbered U.N. forces below the 38th parallel. Truce negotiations dragged on for several years until on July 27, 1953, fighting finally stopped.

It was not a complete victory for the U.N. Korea still is divided at the 38th parallel. But, for the first time in history, a world organization used force to stop aggression.

7. *Suez Invasion.* Military incidents followed the armistice that the U.N. had brought about between Israel and her neighbors in 1949. When the Egyptian government seized and nationalized the Suez Canal in July, 1956, the Israelis, British, and French attacked the Suez Peninsula in October and November.

An emergency special session of the Assembly adopted a

United States resolution calling for an immediate cease fire. Under pressure from the United States, Russia and the U.N., Britain and France accepted this resolution. By direction of the Assembly, a United Nations Emergency Force was set up to maintain peace. The first troops landed in Suez on November 11, 1956. The following February, Israel agreed to withdraw all of her troops from the peninsula if the U.N. Emergency Force stationed peace-keeping troops in the Gulf of Aqaba and in the Gaza Strip. They became the first uniformed peace-preserving unit in the history of the U.N.

B. Improvements in World Conditions.

In 1949 the U.N. set up a *Technical Assistance Administration* to improve standards of shelter, health, food supplies and education. More than 8000 experts have been sent to 100 countries and territories. In 1957 this program was expanded and extended.

The United States, in 1949, launched a *Point Four* program of industrial and scientific aid to people in undeveloped areas in Latin America, Africa, the Middle East and Asia. Through it people have been taught modern industrial, educational and medical methods.

It has increased by 50% the cotton crop of Afghanistan; stamped out malaria in areas of Burma where formerly every third baby had been infected; brought rinderpest (a disease of cattle) under control in African countries; began domestic air mail service in Iran; taught thousands of illiterates in Colombia to read and write; established a penicillin factory in Yugoslavia.

C. Care of Children

Through UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund), huge quantities of food (especially milk), clothing and medical supplies have been furnished to millions of children and mothers in 84 countries and territories. Mass health programs are being conducted throughout the world against insect-borne diseases, tuberculosis, diphtheria and other ailments; antibiotics, insecticides and vaccines are being supplied to improve health standards.

D. Respect of Human Rights

The Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up by the Human Rights Commission, under Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, and was adopted by the General Assembly in December, 1948, without a dissenting vote. Some of its articles are:

1. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and

should act toward one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

2. Everyone is entitled to all rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.
3. Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and the security of person.
4. All are equal before the law, and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection by the law.
5. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

The Human Rights Commission also drew up a *Genocide Convention* which went into effect in January, 1951. This document declared illegal the deliberate extermination, in whole or in part, of national or religious groups, and provided for the trial before an international court of persons violating this principle.

3. Problems Facing the United Nations

1. *The Veto Power of the Big Five.* The excessive use of the veto (Russia has used it more times than all other nations combined) has raised the question of curbs so that no one nation can halt world progress toward security. Americans favor some curbs but not abolition of the veto power.
2. *Control of Atomic Energy and Disarmament.* Differences between America and Russia have held up the solution of these problems. However, the U.N. in 1957 created the International Atomic Energy Agency, with an American, W. Sterling Cole, as its head, to promote peaceful uses of atomic energy.
3. *Changes in the Membership.* The largest bloc of nations in the U.N. total of 82 members is now the Asian-African group, with 27 members. Many are newly independent (Burma, Indonesia, Laos, Cambodia, Libya, Ghana, Malaya, Guinea). This group has over a third of the Assembly votes, and can block any resolution it doesn't approve. The Communist group now numbers 10, with the addition of four new satellite members (Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Rumania), while the Western Hemisphere includes 20 states, with Canada included in the Commonwealth bloc. The small states now play a larger role in the deliberations of the Assembly.
4. *Membership of China.* The Nationalist Chinese on Formosa now represent China in the United Nations. The Communist Chinese on the mainland of China, with Russian backing, demanded membership which has been withheld.
5. *Condemnation of Large Nations.* When the Hungarians revolted against their Soviet-dominated government in October,

1956, Russian troops moved in. The Assembly condemned this act as a violation of the U.N. Charter. A special commission investigated the revolt and reported harshly on Russian terrorism, executions and mass deportations in Hungary. Again in September, 1957, the Assembly condemned the use of the Soviet army in Hungary. But the Russian troops stayed, and the pro-Russian Kadar government stayed in firm control. Premier Imre Nagy and other leaders of the revolt were executed. When the Assembly condemned the Anglo-French-Israeli invasion of Suez in 1956, these nations removed their troops.

6. *Revolts in Cyprus and Algeria.* Cyprus, an important English base in the eastern Mediterranean, was a serious problem for England, Turkey and Greece. After several years of riots and disturbances, an agreement was worked out satisfactorily making Cyprus an independent country. England will retain her bases on the island. The Greek majority (80% of the population) will control the government, electing the President. The Vice-President will be a Turk.

Another troublesome problem is the Arab rebellion in Algeria against France. This territory is part of the French Republic, and as such, the French regard it as a domestic problem, into which the U.N. may not interfere.

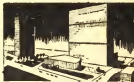
7. *By-Passing the United Nations.* In recent years the major powers have not used the facilities of the U.N. as their chief approach to a solution of their difficulties. They have held conferences of foreign ministers and responsible statesmen. This regional approach toward security, it was hoped, would be replaced by a more universal system of security within the framework of the United Nations.

These problems and shortcomings may be corrected gradually. The United Nations offers an excellent way to help the world build a lasting peace by winning "the battle for the minds of men".

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.

- Which of the following was re-elected Secretary General of the United Nations in 1957? (a) Trygve Lie, (b) Dag Hammarskjöld, (c) Carlos Romulos, (d) Henry Cabot Lodge. 1.
- The chief United States delegate to the United Nations is (a) Clare Booth Luce, (b) Eleanor Roosevelt, (c) Henry Cabot Lodge, (d) Ralph Bunche. 2.



3. The admission of Red China to the United Nations has been vigorously opposed by (a) Great Britain, (b) Soviet Russia, (c) the Republic of India, (d) the United States. 3. _____
4. According to the United Nations charter, the General Assembly meets (a) in continuous session, (b) at least once a year, (c) only when called by the Secretary General, (d) only in time of emergency. 4. _____
5. Military action against an aggressor nation may be vetoed by (a) any member of the General Assembly, (b) the Secretary General, (c) any permanent member of the Security Council, (d) the World Court. 5. _____
6. The United Nations Charter gives the Security Council the power to (a) veto decisions of the Assembly, (b) cancel treaties made by member nations, (c) use force to stop aggression, (d) elect the Secretary General. 6. _____
7. The United Nations has helped to establish (a) a permanent international military force, (b) international control of atomic energy, (c) the independent states of Israel and Indonesia, (d) investigation of slave-labor camps throughout the world. 7. _____
8. The country that has most often blocked action in the United Nations by the use of the veto is (a) France, (b) Soviet Russia, (c) Great Britain, (d) the United States. 8. _____
9. According to the United Nations charter, representation in the General Assembly is (a) equal, (b) according to size, (c) according to population, (d) according to military strength. 9. _____
10. In the United Nations the veto power may be used in the (a) Security Council, (b) General Assembly, (c) Secretariat, (d) International Court of Justice. 10. _____
11. The six non-permanent members of the Security Council are selected by the (a) General Assembly, (b) Economic and Social Council, (c) five permanent members of the Council, (d) Secretariat. 11. _____
12. A territory that is under the protection of the United Nations but whose government is supervised by a strong nation is called a (a) trusteeship, (b) protectorate, (c) mandate, (d) sphere of influence. 12. _____
13. One function of the Economic and Social Council of the U. N. is to (a) settle boundary disputes between nations, (b) promote respect for human rights, (c) control the economic life of nations, (d) regulate the use of atomic energy. 13. _____
14. Which of the following statements about the Security Council is true? (a) permanent and non-permanent members each have one vote, (b) non-permanent members are appointed for five-year terms, (c) the permanent members select the non-permanent members, (d) Security Council decisions must be unanimous. 14. _____
15. Of the following which one belongs to the United Nations? (a) West Germany, (b) East Germany, (c) Nationalist China, (d) Communist China. 15. _____
16. An important function of the General Assembly is to (a) elect the

- non-permanent members of the Security Council, (b) serve as an international forum for all nations, (c) draw up the budget of the United Nations, (d) carry out all of these. 16.
17. The part of the United Nations that is no longer functioning today is the (a) World Health Organization, (b) International Refugee Organization, (c) Food and Agriculture Organization, (d) Trusteeship Council. 17.
18. Of the following which one was part of both the League of Nations and the United Nations? (a) Economic and Social Council, (b) the U.N.E.S.C.O., (c) International Court of Justice, (d) International Bank. 18.
19. The number of members in the United Nations in 1958 was (a) 60, (b) 70, (c) 75, (d) 82. 19.
20. The Point Four Program of the United States is most similar in purpose to the (a) Economic and Social Council, (b) Technical Assistance Administration, (c) Food and Agriculture Organization, (d) World Health Organization. 20.
21. All of the following are agencies of the United Nations *except* (a) O.A.S., (b) U.N.I.C.E.F., (c) I.L.O., (d) F.A.O. 21.
22. The largest group of nations in the United Nations is the (a) Communist bloc, (b) Afro-Asian bloc, (c) Arab states, (d) Commonwealth bloc. 22.
23. The Genocide Convention (a) provided for freer trade among nations, (b) proposed disarmament among the great powers, (c) declared illegal the deliberate extermination of racial or religious groups, (d) condemned Soviet labor camps. 23.
24. A United Nations Emergency Force is (a) maintaining peace along the Iron Curtain in Europe, (b) patrolling the 38th parallel in Korea, (c) keeping the peace in the Gulf of Aqaba and in the Gaza strip, (d) cooperating with N.A.T.O. 24.
25. The first collective action by a world organization employing force against an aggressor took place in (a) Ethiopia, (b) Korea, (c) Indo China, (d) Kashmir. 25.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

- Conferences that led to the formation of the United Nations: (a) Moscow Conference, (b) Dumbarton Oaks Conference, (c) Potsdam Conference, (d) San Francisco Conference.
- Recent additions to membership in the U.N. (a) Italy, (b) Red China, (c) Japan, (d) Malaya.
- Agencies of the United Nations: (a) Secretariat, (b) Mandates Commission, (c) Hague Court of Justice, (d) Economics and Social Council.
- Permanent members of the Security Council: (a) Brazil, (b) Nationalist China, (c) France, (d) Russia.
- United Nations successes: (a) Kashmir, (b) Indonesia, (c) Israel, (d) Suez Canal.

6. Declaration of Human Rights: (a) equality before the law, (b) all people are born free and equal in dignity and rights, (c) all people are guaranteed social security, (d) no racial discrimination.
7. Purposes of the United Nations: (a) promote democracy, (b) maintain international peace, (c) achieve international cooperation in economic problems, (d) provide a forum for international discussion of problems.
8. Powers of the General Assembly: (a) appoints the Secretary General, (b) draws up the budget, (c) elects the non-permanent members of the Security Council, (d) expels nations from the United Nations.
9. Problems facing the United Nations: (a) veto power of the Big Five, (b) control of armaments and atomic energy, (c) bloc voting in the Assembly, (d) admission of defeated World War II countries.
10. Specialized agencies cooperating with the Economic and Social Council: (a) W.H.O., (b) U.N.E.S.C.O., (c) World Court, (d) F.A.O.

HISTORICAL TERMS

Write in the space provided at the left the letter of the statement in Column II that best defines each word in Column I.

- | I | II |
|--------------------------|--|
| _____ 1. devaluation | a. mass murder of a people for reasons of race or religion |
| _____ 2. nationalization | b. direct vote by all people on some issue |
| _____ 3. genocide | c. the right to vote |
| _____ 4. satellite | d. transfer of industries from private to public ownership |
| _____ 5. armistice | e. resistance to authority |
| _____ 6. suffrage | f. a small nation wholly dominated by a large power |
| _____ 7. belligerent | g. wage-earning class |
| _____ 8. plebiscite | h. reduction of the value of money by a government |
| _____ 9. proletariat | i. a nation at war |
| _____ 10. rebellion | j. more than half |
| | k. a cease-fire agreement |

COMPLETION TEST

Write in the space provided the word or phrase that best completes the statement.

1. In what city was the charter of the U.N. drafted? _____
2. What city is the permanent home of the U.N.? _____
3. Who is the Secretary General of the U.N.? _____
4. How many members are there on the Security Council? _____
5. Who was the influential American representative on the Commission of Human Rights? _____

6. What organization of the U.N. settles questions of international law?
7. What is the name of a nation that is not a member of the U.N.?
8. What agency of the U.N. seeks to raise the world-wide level of education?
9. What nation's independence is most opposed by the Arabs at U.N. meetings?
10. What agency of the U.N. is concerned with work similar to that of the League Mandates Commission?

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. (a) Discuss briefly the work of each of two of the following agencies of the United Nations: World Health Organization, Food and Agricultural Organization, U.N.E.S.C.O., Commission on Human Rights, International Refugee Organization. (b) Identify each of the following persons in relation to the United Nations: Dag Hammarskjöld, Ralph Bunche, Trygve Lie.

2. Show how the United Nations has sought to achieve two of the following objectives stated in its charter: (a) "To unite our strength to maintain international peace and security." (b) "To promote social progress and better standards of life." (c) "To reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights."

3. One of the objectives of the United Nations is "to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war". (a) Discuss briefly two examples that show how nations attempted to achieve this objective before World War II. (b) Show how each of two individuals has helped to promote the world peace movement during the 20th Century.

4. Give historical evidence to support this statement: "The United Nations does not depend solely on military power to promote and preserve the peace of the world."

5. Describe fully how two of the following have either helped or hindered the cause of world peace since 1900: (a) a specific dictator, (b) a specific alliance, (c) development of the airplane, (d) development of atomic power.

6. Explain, giving specific facts, how each of two of the following has been a serious problem to the United Nations: (a) use of the veto power, (b) revision of the charter, (c) Israeli-Arab relations, (d) development of nuclear weapons.

7. (a) Discuss the work of the United Nations with regard to each of *three* of the following: a threat to world peace in the Far East; the problem of refugees; health conditions in the undeveloped areas; educational opportunities throughout the world; economic conditions in undeveloped areas. (b) Describe each of two problems within the United Nations that have hindered it in its work.


8. State three important differences between the League of Nations and the United Nations.



The Cold War

1. Peace Treaties After World War II

The drafting of peace treaties with five of the defeated nations in Europe was completed after 18 months of negotiations by the Big Four foreign ministers (the United States, Britain, Russia, and France). These treaties were signed in Paris in 1947:

Country	Territorial Losses	Arms Limitations	Reparations
Italy	Trieste became a Free Territory under U.N. supervision; Venezia Giulia and small Adriatic islands were given to Yugoslavia; some border areas to France; Dodecanese Islands to Greece; all colonies in Africa (Somalia, Eritrea, Libya) to be handled by Big Four ministers.	Army limited to 185,000; Navy and air force to 25,000 each.	\$360,000,000. 
Hungary	Transylvania to Rumania; territory taken from Czechoslovakia in 1938 returned.	Army limited to 65,000; air force to 5,000.	\$300,000,000.
Rumania	Regained Transylvania, but lost Bessarabia to Russia and southern Dobruja to Bulgaria.	Army limited to 120,000, navy to 5,000; air force to 8,000.	\$300,000,000.
Bulgaria	No losses of territory; received southern Dobruja from Rumania.	Army limited to 55,000.	\$70,000,000.
Finland	Petsamo and southern Karelia to Russia, plus 50-year lease on naval base commanding the Gulf of Finland.	Army limited to 34,000; navy to 4,500; air force to 3,000.	\$300,000,000.

East-West Cooperation During World War II. While the war against Germany and Japan was in progress, the leaders of the United States, Britain, Russia and sometimes Nationalist China met to plan action against the enemy. Through their representatives, these nations pledged themselves to cooperate to bring the war to a successful end.

1. Assistance, particularly American Lend-Lease aid, was given to Russia of over \$11 billions in ships, guns, planes, tanks, machinery and other items.
2. A series of inter-Allied conferences to plan military strategy and post-war policies were held at Teheran, Cairo and Moscow in 1943, and at Yalta and Potsdam in 1945.
3. Military strategy was coordinated to squeeze Germany in a gigantic pincers movement. Second fronts were opened up with the invasion of Italy in 1943, and the Normandy beach-head in France in 1944, with the Russian counter-attack pushing the Germans back over the ground they had gained in 1941-43.
4. Russia dissolved the Comintern (the agency of international communism) in 1943.

End of Cooperation—1945-47. Relations between the Western countries and the Soviet Union began to deteriorate even before the war had ended in Europe, and grew worse after V-E Day. In the next two years events showed that Russia had gone back to her old attitude of belligerence, suspicion and distrust. The alliance that Franklin D. Roosevelt had tried to create fell apart under the impact of Soviet propaganda and political acts.

Some of these were: (1) obstruction in carrying out the terms for the occupation of Germany; (2) a propaganda campaign against the West; (3) the expansion of Russian control in Central Europe; (4) Russian unwillingness to accept atomic energy controls and inspections; (5) abuse of the veto power in the United Nations; (6) the efforts of Communist parties, aided and controlled by Russia, to gain control over France and Italy.

Russian Expansion After 1939. The one country that emerged from World War II with more territory under its direct and indirect control was Russia. Since 1939 Russia has expanded territorially as follows:

1. Annexation.

- a. The Baltic provinces of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were occupied and annexed to Russia in 1940.
- b. The Karelian Isthmus of Finland, the control of the waters along the Arctic coast and the southern coast of Finland were acquired after the Finnish war in 1940.



THE WORLD TODAY — PART SLAVE, PART FREE. The struggle going on all over the world is over the desire of the United States and other democracies to keep men free. The communist nations want to put man under the yoke of slavery. This map shows the extent of communist penetration throughout the globe.

- c. The eastern provinces of Poland were occupied and added to Russia in 1939.
- d. By the peace treaty with Finland (1947) Petsamo province and southern Karelia were occupied. Bessarabia was taken from Rumania.
- e. From Japan, the southern half of Sakhalin Island and the Kurile Islands were taken over.

2. Indirect Control.

- a. East Germany was made into a German People's Republic, closely controlled by Russia.
- b. By military occupation, elimination of opposition, and the holding of "rigged elections," the Communists set up satellite states in Albania (1945), Bulgaria (1946), Hungary and Rumania (1947), Czechoslovakia (1948), and Poland (1948).
- c. Formation of the North Korean People's Republic (above the 38th parallel) which became a Communist satellite.
- d. Establishment of Communist rule over China (1949), with very close military and economic ties to Russia.
- e. Creation of the North Viet Nam Republic in 1954 (north of the 17th parallel) under Communist rule.

3. Expansion Programs.

- a. Cominform created in 1947 to carry on the policies and program of international communism. Although they abolished the Cominform in 1956, the Russians established another agency to unite world Communist groups under Russian control.
- b. Strong minority Communist parties grew in France and Italy where almost one-third of the popular vote has been cast for these parties in recent elections.
- c. Small, but vocal, Communist parties in many other countries (India, Indonesia, Thailand) carry on propaganda in an effort to weaken the regular government and increase their own influence.
- d. A program of economic and military aid amounting to over \$1.5 billions from 1956-1958 to Afghanistan, Cambodia, Ceylon, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Syria, Yemen and Yugoslavia. Most of this money has gone for the development of industry, large and small. In addition, some \$500 millions in military assistance have gone to these countries, particularly Egypt and Syria (now the United Arab Republic).

The Cold War. The post-war world was divided into two groups. The East consisted of Russia and her satellites. The West, led by

the United States, included Great Britain, France, Italy, the Benelux countries (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxemburg) and others. A struggle for supremacy between these opposing groups has been continuing since 1947. This conflict has been waged more with words than with bullets, and has involved diplomatic conferences, propaganda, economic supports and localized military action. Hence the term "cold war."

2. *The Cold War in Europe*

The Problem of Germany. The problem of a divided Germany dramatizes the differences between the free and the Communist worlds. A unified Germany is an important prize in the conflict between East and West.

1. The Potsdam Conference, 1945. At this conference, the Big Three (the United States, Great Britain, and Russia) agreed on the following proposals regarding the defeated country:

- a. Germany was to be divided among the Big Three and France into four zones. The eastern part was to be under the control of Russia; the western part was to be divided into three zones—American, British and French.
- b. Poland was to receive the port of Danzig and most of East Prussia.
- c. Germans in Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary were to be returned to Germany.
- d. Berlin in the Soviet zone was to be divided into four zones like Germany.
- e. The Nazi Party was to be destroyed, and Germans accused of war crimes were to be tried by a special international court.
- f. Democratic education and democratic political parties were to be encouraged.

2. Disagreements Over Germany. These agreements were not easily carried out, because of serious differences of opinion between the countries involved. These included:

- a. *The Boundaries of Germany.* Communist Poland had seized the province of Silesia and the southern half of East Prussia, while Russia had taken over the northern half—territorial changes not recognized by the Western countries.
- b. *The Amount of Reparations.* Russia claimed more than \$10 billions. These claims were rejected by the democratic nations, who remembered too well the role played by reparations in the rise of Hitler after World War I.
- c. *The Government of Germany.* The West favors a decentralized federal republic; the Russians seek a strongly centralized government.

3. *The Berlin Airlift (1948-49).* Due to a series of conflicts between the occupying powers over reparations and the economic and political administration of Germany, the three Western powers in 1948 agreed to unify their zones. Russia refused to participate any longer in the over-all administration of Germany by the Allied Control Council. This opposition became direct action when in June, 1948, Soviet authorities refused to permit the shipment of goods by railroad or water into Berlin through the Russian zone. To break the blockade and prevent all of Berlin from falling into Russian hands, the Western powers established an airlift.

For the next eleven months, the United States and Britain brought in all necessary supplies and equipment by air—the only way available. Russia was finally forced to lift the blockade because of the unfavorable propaganda effect of the airlift upon the people in Russian-controlled East Germany.

4. *Establishment of the Bonn Republic, 1949.* In April, 1949, representatives of the 11 German states in the Western zone were authorized to vote on a constitution, and to create a Federal Republic of Germany, with a provisional capital at Bonn.

Dr. Konrad Adenauer, leader of the Christian Democrats, became Chancellor of this new government. In the election of September, 1957, Adenauer's party was re-elected by a large majority, showing that the West German voters favored his policies, which involve close cooperation with the Western countries.

5. *The Bonn Republic and NATO.* The United States and England tried to bring West Germany into NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) and re-arm Germany through the European Defense Community (E.D.C.). This was vetoed by the French in 1954.

Later that year an agreement was signed at Bonn which expanded the Western European Union formed at Brussels in 1948. The agreement provided for:

- a. The establishment of complete sovereignty for West Germany and the ending of Allied occupation, with the Western powers being permitted to station troops in Germany "for the defense of the free world."
- b. West Germany and Italy were invited to join England, France, and the Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxemburg) in an expanded Brussels treaty organization. England agreed to keep her four divisions of troops in Europe as long as the Brussels organization felt it was necessary.
- c. The fixing of the maximum size of its members' contributions to NATO, and control of all arms manufacturing.

- d. West Germany was to become the 15th member of NATO and contribute a force of 12 divisions and 1000 planes.
- e. West Germany pledged itself not to manufacture atomic, biological or chemical war weapons.

In a separate agreement, France and West Germany reached agreement over the Saar Basin. Provision was made for a plebiscite to determine its future status. As a result, in 1957, the Saar was politically united with West Germany.

Since 1954 the West Germans have established conscription and are building up an army. By December, 1957, it had 200,000 trained soldiers. France has withdrawn many of her troops from West Germany and Britain is reducing her forces. Pressure is increasing in the United States to cut her 250,000 troops in Europe. The German units will thus become the most important in NATO.

6. German Unification. Since 1945 West Germany has become the leading economic power in Continental Europe, next to Russia. If West Germany, with its population of 51 millions, should be reunited with the East German state and its 18 millions, Germany could be a strong shield between the Soviet Union and the West.

The West favors unity of Germany through freely-held elections in both parts; Russia favors unity through direct negotiations between the two German governments, and a neutrality pledge.

Germany's eastern frontiers are an important issue in German unification. Poland and Russia took territory that contained one fourth of Germany's farm land, and the coal and industrial center of Upper Silesia. In 1954, Poland settled 5,000,000 Poles in the area. Chancellor Adenauer has been willing to compromise on these boundaries, providing a general peace treaty can be drawn up.

The unification of East and West Germany continues to be a thorny problem, as does the partition of Berlin. Conferences were held in 1959 among the four leading countries involved — United States, England, France and Russia — with representatives from West and East Germany as observers, to try to resolve these problems. An unwillingness to compromise has made it very difficult for the West and the Soviet Union to decide the future of Germany.

7. German Economic Recovery. West Germany is the most highly industrialized nation in Western Europe. German industry—largely destroyed by Allied bombing—has been completely rebuilt along the most modern lines. This has been done with Marshall Plan and other economic aid. In the total production of steel and manufactured goods of all types, West Germany is now the third industrial nation in the world.

All of Western Europe's plans for economic and industrial cooperation depend on the participation of West Germany. This includes the Organization of European Economic Cooperation

(OEEC) Coal and Steel Community, Euratom (atomic energy cooperation) and the common market program (Euromarket).

West Germany's importance emphasizes the value of a united Germany. An East Germany tied to the West would have a tremendous influence on Moscow's European satellite nations. A Communist West Germany would affect the rest of West Europe. a neutral, reunited Germany could mean the end of NATO as a military organization.

8. Conditions in East Germany. There the Russians have organized a Communist German Democratic People's Republic. It contains only one-third the population of West Germany, with few resources of coal and steel. East Germany's chief resource is food production. Yet in 1953, the puppet Red government had serious difficulties with the Germans over food shortages. Over 100,000 Germans crossed over the border to secure free food parcels given out by the West German government in a bold psychological move.

A new crisis developed in 1958 over the Allied control of Berlin. Russia promised to turn over to the puppet Communist East Germans complete control of their section of Berlin. The Allied position in West Berlin was again threatened as it had been in 1948-1949 when the Allies resorted to the airlift to bring food and supplies to the people.

In 1954 the Russians matched the sovereignty of the Bonn Republic by granting full sovereignty to the East German People's Republic. However, the Red Army remained in East Germany with a Soviet High Commissioner to supervise East German officials and keep tight Communist Party control.

9. German War Trials. For the first time in history, leaders of a nation guilty of aggression were brought to trial. The leading Nazis were charged with four crimes: planning the war, crimes against peace, crimes against humanity and war crimes.

The trials were conducted in Nuremberg with Justice Jackson of the United States Supreme Court as the Chief Prosecutor. Of the 21 tried, 11 were given the death sentence, 7 were sentenced to life imprisonment and 3 were acquitted.

Secondary Nazi leaders were tried by the United States Military Tribunal, while less important Nazis were turned over to German denazification courts. Since then the sentences of many of those found guilty have been reduced.

The Problem of Austria. Austria was regarded as a liberated nation, not a defeated country. The Allies allowed it to establish its own central government supervised by an Allied War Council of the four major governments (United States, Russia, France and England). Early in 1955 foreign soldiers were withdrawn and Austria was admitted to the U.N. as an independent country.

3. Plans to Counteract Communism

The Marshall Plan for European Recovery.

By helping Europe to help itself, the United States hoped to strengthen friendly nations, stop the growing tide of Communist sentiment, dispose of surplus products, and improve trade with a Europe recovered from the war. Secretary of State George C. Marshall, in June, 1947, proposed a plan to make European recovery a major goal of American policy. Foodstuffs, industrial raw materials, experts with technical knowledge—all were supplied to the Marshall Plan countries.

1. Development of the Plan. Sixteen nations met in Paris and formed the Organization of European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) to supervise the division of aid and the execution of the Plan. Russia refused to participate and she ordered her satellite nations to follow suit.



In June, 1947, Secretary of State Marshall proposed that the United States help European nations by giving them financial aid. Thus, a wall was built that kept communism out of nations struggling to recover from the effects of war. In 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was organized to rebuild western Europe's military strength to prevent Russian aggression.

Messner, Rochester Times-Union

2. Achievements of the Plan. In its four years of operation the Plan spent almost \$14 billions. Industrial and agricultural production increased, living standards improved, and the appeal of communism declined.

3. Mutual Security Agency (1952). In the last year of the Marshall Plan, the South Korean invasion changed the flow of American aid from Europe to the Far East which has continued to be a conflict area between the free and Communist groups. The Mutual Security Agency is now the International Cooperation Administration, created to supervise American foreign aid. In 1958, the American Congress adopted a foreign aid program (mostly military) amounting to over \$3 billions.

4. *Communist Opposition to the Marshall Plan.* Russia opposed the efforts of the American government to help Europe calling it a plan for American economic control. Russia organized a Molotov Plan in 1949, to establish closer trade relations and a self-sufficient economy among the Communist countries.

The Truman Doctrine (1947). After World War II, conditions in Greece were chaotic, as rival groups struggled for control. When Great Britain announced in 1947 that she was withdrawing from Greece because she was unable any longer to assist that country, the United States assumed the burden. The strategic importance of Greece, and also of Turkey, which Russia was menacing, was the reason for American support.

President Truman asked Congress for \$400 millions to assist both countries militarily and economically against the threat of Communist expansion. Under the *Truman Doctrine* the United States announced it would help any country threatened by anti-democratic internal or external pressure.

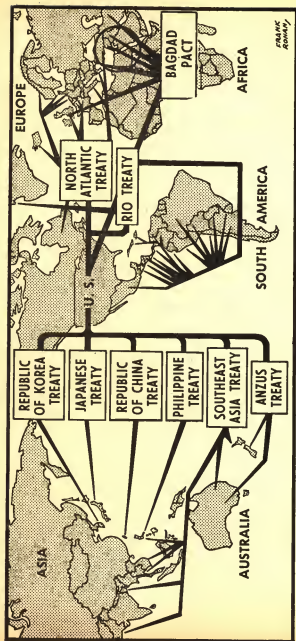
As a result of this assistance, Greece and Turkey were able to resist the spread of communism in their countries. Turkey also could disregard Russian pressure to obtain control over the Dardanelles. Additional money has created a strong modernized Turkish army. In 1952 both countries were admitted to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (1949).

1. *Steps Leading to N.A.T.O.* Fear and tensions mounted in Europe after the Communists seized control of the Czechoslovakian government in February, 1948. Alarmed by this Communist stroke, the prime ministers of Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxemburg met at Brussels in March, 1948 and agreed to accept the English and French offer of a 50-year mutual defense pact among these five countries. In the same year the American Senate approved the Vandenberg Resolution which authorized the United States to organize defense agreements with the nations of Europe.

2. *Signing of N.A.T.O.* In April, 1949, relations between Russia and the West became more strained. Representatives of Belgium, Holland, Luxemburg, France, Denmark, Iceland, Canada, Italy, Great Britain, Portugal, Norway and the United States met in Washington, D. C., to sign a mutual defense agreement with guarantees against a Soviet attack. (Greece and Turkey joined in 1952; West Germany in 1955.) The pact provided for:

- a. A security area in the North Atlantic.
- b. Consultation among the member states whenever territorial integrity, political independence or the security of any of them is threatened.



THE UNITED STATES IS PLEDGED TO DEFEND NATIONS IN EVERY CONTINENT. The umbrella of United States protection covers more than 50 nations around the globe. The United States is pledged by treaty to defend these nations against aggression.

c. The use of armed force to resist attack upon any member.

3. *Financing the Pact.* With the passage of the Military Assistance Pact (1949) the United States appropriated more than \$14 billions in successive years to enable the North Atlantic Treaty countries to buy military equipment of all kinds.



MEMBERS OF MARSHALL PLAN COUNCIL AND NATO

MEMBERS OF NATO

4. *Additions to N.A.T.O.* In 1952 Greece and Turkey became members of N.A.T.O., thus including the eastern Mediterranean, with its strategic Dardanelles. West Germany became a member in 1955.

5. *Organization of N.A.T.O.* A council of the principal ministers of the member countries has been set up. Boards of veteran military technicians coordinate defense forces and plan for the common security. Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers, Europe (SHAPE) is in Paris under General Lauris Norstad.

6. *Russian Reaction to N.A.T.O.* Russia opposed the formation of N.A.T.O., claiming that it was a violation of the U.N. charter and was directly aimed at Russia. The West's reply was that the Pact

was defensive, not aggressive, and was in accordance with the Charter, which recognizes regional arrangements to maintain peace and security. Russia has created an East European military alliance, the *Warsaw Pact*, as a partial answer to N.A.T.O.

7. *N.A.T.O. Today.* The North Atlantic Treaty Organization has built a network of airfields, communications and pipelines across 4,000 miles of Europe from Norway to Turkey.

The Supreme Commander controls a 15-nation force consisting of 5000 aircraft and about 30 divisions — just a small part of the total forces that N.A.T.O. member countries can muster. The United States has strengthened N.A.T.O. forces with nuclear weapons.

The heads of the member governments met in December, 1957, to take up the new problems created by Russian successes with missiles and sputniks, the fear that military supremacy had passed to Russia, and the policy conflicts between N.A.T.O. members over Algeria, Cyprus and the Middle East.

Among the decisions reached were: (1) to supply member states who desired them with American intermediate range ballistic missiles and nuclear warheads; (2) to continue disarmament talks with Russia, either through the U.N. or through meetings of the foreign ministers of the various states; (3) greater pooling of scientific facilities and information; and (4) the promotion of economic stability and trade through the reduction of trade and exchange barriers.

Thus N.A.T.O. is gradually changing from a strictly military to a political and diplomatic alliance. Another sign of change is the growth of influence of the European states within the alliance, so that it cannot be regarded as a strictly American operation.

European Economic and Political Unity. To promote the free flow of goods with each other, the Benelux countries agreed in 1946 to abolish tariffs on each other's products.

Under the *Schuman Plan* (1950) the iron and coal resources of six countries (Benelux, Italy, France and West Germany) are pooled to provide a common market for coal, iron and steel through the elimination of tariffs and subsidies. In 1957 these countries signed two treaties — the European Economic Community (*Euromarket*) and the European Atomic Energy Community (*Euratom*) providing for the gradual abolition of tariffs and the pooling of atomic energy resources.

The first step toward political cooperation among the Western European states after World War II was the creation of the *Council of Europe*. The members of the Council are the countries that belonged to Euromarket with the exception of Switzerland, Portugal and Austria. It is hoped that the Council of Europe may lead to political unity in the form of a United States of Europe.



Members of Euratom and Euromarket

Proposed Free Trade Areas

Communist Bloc

A UNITED EUROPE — EUROMARKET AND EURATOM. The cornerstone of one Europe is a common market (Euromarket). France, West Germany, Luxembourg, Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy will one day permit free flow of goods across their borders. Euratom is a plan to coordinate the atomic energy programs of the six member nations.

Another step forward was the formation in 1957, of a 17-nation European Nuclear Energy Agency to promote cooperative peace-time atomic energy undertakings. It includes the Euratom nations plus Britain, Ireland and others. One of its first undertakings is the building of a plutonium plant.

Aid to Yugoslavia. Although a Communist country under a dictator, Marshal Tito, Yugoslavia broke away from the Communist yoke in 1948, and adopted a nationalistic policy independent of Russia. The United States, seeking to strengthen Western defenses against possible Russian aggression (the 600,000 troops of Tito were an added attraction), aided Yugoslavia against Russian pressure.

Between 1948 and 1955 Yugoslavia boycotted Russia and her satellites, and stood with the West. During that time, the country received almost a billion dollars in United States help, half of it military. In 1955 the new Russian leaders attempted to heal the breach with Yugoslavia by visiting it and apologizing for Stalin's actions. In November, 1958, Tito reaffirmed his policy of close ties with the West.

Bases in Spain. The Fascist regime of General Franco did not receive Marshall Plan aid nor is it a member of N.A.T.O. However, the United States granted Spain economic and military assistance in 1953, in return for air and naval bases in that country. Two years later Spain joined the United Nations. Thus another link was added to the chain of bases defending Europe.

Role of Propaganda. The importance of propaganda in the Cold War has been shown in the boasting by the Russians of their scientific accomplishments with missiles and satellites. The term "sputnik" has entered every language. This propaganda built up Soviet prestige all over the world until the United States exceeded their best scientific efforts.

The counter propaganda of the West came from the matching and surpassing of these exploits. The United States Information Agency tells the West's side of the story through the *Voice of America*, a network of short- and medium-wave radio stations, a news service, libraries in foreign cities, and books and magazines published in many languages.

4. *The Cold War in the Middle East*

Importance of the Middle East. Most of the 80 million people living in this area are Arabs. Their intense nationalism, their low living standards, and their religious differences with the West complicate their economic and military importance to both sides. From the Middle East comes 20% of the world's oil, and it contains 70% of the oil reserves of the free world.

It is the crossroads of three continents — Europe, Africa and Asia — and contains the Straits of the Dardanelles (of great importance to Russia) and the Suez Canal (of similar importance to the West). For several centuries Russia has been trying to get a foothold in the Middle East, and the Communists have succeeded in the last few years in extending Russian influence in this area.

The Western states are trying to limit Russia's threat by treaty agreements and economic, technical and military assistance (see pages 453-55)

The Bagdad Pact. In 1955, five nations (Britain, Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Pakistan) organized a Middle East Treaty Organization, and pledged to aid each other in case of attack.

Although the United States is not a member of the Bagdad Pact, it is a member of the military planning staff of the pact. After the Middle East crisis of 1958 in Iraq, Lebanon and Jordan, the United States took a more active part in this organization.

Eisenhower Doctrine. The decline in power and prestige of Britain and France in the Middle East after they were forced to withdraw their troops from the Suez Peninsula in 1956, led the United States to propose the *Eisenhower Doctrine* in an effort to save Western interests and keep Russia out of that area.

By this Doctrine, the United States pledged to use American troops if necessary, and if requested, to keep any country in the region from falling behind the Iron Curtain. In addition, the President was given a fund of \$200 million for economic aid to the countries of the area.

Egypt. The present head of the Egyptian government is Gamal Nasser who took control in 1952, and has been trying since to make Egypt the leader of the Arab states in the Middle East. Egypt's problems are mainly economic—low living standards, primitive methods of agriculture, and insufficient farm land for her 24 million people.

Since 1955 Egypt has moved closer into the Soviet sphere of influence. Russian-made arms were exchanged for Egyptian cotton, and Egypt became a strong military power.

When the Western powers in 1956 (particularly the United States) refused to help finance the construction of the Aswan Dam to harness the Nile River (estimated cost over a billion dollars), Nasser seized and nationalized the Suez Canal. This led to the English-French invasion of the Peninsula late in 1956, which the Israelis joined because of repeated Egyptian raids upon Israel. Although the Egyptian army was decisively defeated, a U.N. resolution (backed by Russia and the United States) forced the invading armies to withdraw, leaving Nasser in stronger control, not only of his country, but also of the canal zone. The invaded area is policed at present by a United Nations Emergency Force.

Soviet influence is strong in Egypt. Soviet propaganda is helping Nasser to unite the Arab nations of Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Yemen, Sudan and Libya into the Arab League as an instrument of anti-European sentiment.

Syria. Syria is a firm anti-Western ally of Egypt. The pipelines which cross its territory carrying oil to the Mediterranean are important to the West. Syria too has received arms and financial support from Russia.

United Arab Republic. On February 1, 1958, Egypt and Syria united to form the United Arab Republic, with Nasser as President and Cairo its capital. The new state forms a powerful center of Arab influence in the Middle East.

The other Arab states and Israel fear the increased strength of the new state. Russia suspects an effort to check Communist influence in Syria. To the Western states it presents complications over oil. Yemen and Saudi Arabia have expressed interest in joining the Arab Federation.

Jordan. This poorest of the Arab nations is unable to live by its own resources. For years after its independence (granted 1946) Britain subsidized the country in return for a military alliance. In 1957 the growth of anti-European sentiment in the country led King Hussein to force out the pro-Soviet officials in his government and army. With American financial aid, Jordan is maintaining a shaky position among the Arab states.

In the 1958 Middle East crisis, following the assassination of Iraq's king, Jordan asked England to send in troops to protect her government from possible revolution. At the same time, Lebanon requested similar military protection from the United States. Both countries responded to prevent "indirect aggression". As a result, a special U.N. Assembly session was called to resolve the tensions of this East-West struggle.

Iran. Its geographic position and its reserves make it important to both Russia and the West. Iran joined the Bagdad Pact and is receiving much aid from the United States and the U.N.

Iraq. Another oil-rich country (the government's revenue from oil totals about \$300 millions a year), Iraq has tried to improve living standards by irrigation projects, road and bridge building and housing. Iraq withdrew from the Bagdad Pact in 1959 and drew closer to Russia. This move was resented and feared by both the United Arab Republic and the Western countries.

Saudi Arabia. King Saud has been the absolute monarch of his nomad people. From the oil earnings of \$300 millions a year the government spends less than 10% on health and education, while over 13% goes for the expenses of the royal family. King Saud is trying to act as mediator between the conflicting aspirations of the Arab states, and is considered to be on the side of the West.

Israel. The only democratic, pro-Western modernized state in the Middle East, Israel is surrounded by unfriendly Arab states that cannot agree among themselves except on their dislike of the Israelis. Its territorial boundaries and water rights have not been accepted by its neighbors. Internally there are the problems of absorbing the many peoples that have come to Israel, reconciling the differing political parties, and maintaining large armed forces.

Israel's invasion of the Suez Peninsula in October, 1956, was its answer to Egypt's raids on its territory. Israel withdrew its troops after strong pressure from the U.N. and the U.S.

Continuing Soviet Propaganda. In December, 1957, a conference of representatives from 42 states and colonies in Africa and Asia was held in Cairo. Its anti-Western, pro-Soviet pronouncements showed that Russia was bidding for support not only from the Arab world but also from African and Asiatic peoples. The conference called for an end to nuclear tests, military pacts, colonialism and imperialism. It supported a plan to nationalize European properties in these countries.

Trouble in Laos. Laos was granted independence by the Geneva armistice of 1954. Under its terms Indochina was divided into North and South Viet Nam, Laos and Cambodia. In August, 1959, Communist Laotian forces, trained by Communist North Viet Nam, tried to take over Laos, which appealed to the U.N. for help. A fact-finding commission was sent to Laos.

Neutrality in the Middle East. Many of the Arab states (with the exception of Iran and Iraq) are uncommitted in the struggle between East and West on the theory that it is best to remain neutral. Syria, Egypt and Yemen are bound to the Soviet bloc, although their governments claim to be neutral. Almost all of these countries are receiving economic and technical assistance from the West. Saudi Arabia and Iraq are getting American arms. Russian technicians are helping to build grain elevators, asphalt factories and petroleum tanks in Afghanistan, a steel mill in India, an aluminum plant in Yugoslavia, a refinery in Syria.

5. The Cold War in the Far East

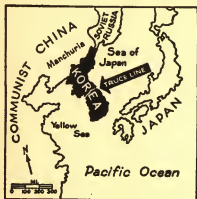
The Korean War. The "cold war" became a "shooting war" in Korea, when the North Koreans crossed the 38th parallel in June, 1950. The intervention of the Chinese Communists with Soviet supplies created a serious rift between East and West. The democratic West used force, headed by the United States, and defeated the aggressors, and a truce was signed in 1953. Russia still opposes unification of Korea, unless all of Korea comes under Communist control.

Mutual Security Pact. To build up democratic defenses against possible Communist aggression, the United States has signed mutual security agreements with the Philippines, South Korea, Australia, New Zealand, Japan and Nationalist China.

In addition, a Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) was formed in 1954 by eight nations — the United States, France, England, Australia, New Zealand, Thailand, Pakistan and the Philip-

pires. These members agree to consult with each other in case of aggression against any one of them. Unlike N.A.T.O. it has no unified military command, or any standing forces. The effectiveness of this security is weakened by the absence of important India, Burma and Indonesia.

Military Assistance. The United States, the leader of the democratic world, has contributed much military aid to Nationalist China, Indo-China, Thailand and Pakistan.



KOREA TODAY. On July 27, 1953, an armistice was signed at Panmunjom. This map shows the truce line which separates both North and South Korea.

Technical Assistance. More than 1.5 billion people live in Latin America, Africa, the Middle East, and Southeast Asia, in countries that are classified as "underdeveloped."

They have no common religion, language or color. They are poor (the average annual income in India is \$55), hungry and badly housed. Four out of five can neither read nor write; they die young, and their populations are increasing by more than a million a month.

To help these peoples help themselves and to keep them from becoming Communist, the United Nations through its Technical Assistance program (see page 430) and the United States, through its Point Four Program, have been contributing the skills and knowledge of the West.

The British Commonwealth's *Colombo Plan*, between 1950-56, spent over a billion dollars in loans, gifts and technical assistance to help these countries.

The Russians are also assisting the countries of Southeast Asia. They are building a steel plant in India; they have close economic and military relations with Communist China and Communist Viet Nam, have sent technicians to Afghanistan and other countries, and are interested in selling arms to Indonesia

Bandung Conference. In 1955, a conference of 20 Asian-African countries was held at Bandung, Indonesia. Many of these were newly-independent states. It was the first conference in which only non-European peoples and countries were represented. The Communists, through their Chinese delegation, attempted to dominate the Conference, which endorsed the end of colonialism, favored self determination for all peoples, and a neutrality policy.

Neutrality in the Far East. A number of important countries in the Far East are trying to remain neutral in the struggle between East and West. In India Prime Minister Nehru calls it a policy of "non-alignment"; Burma calls it "independent neutrality." They refuse to choose sides in the cold war. They are willing to receive American and Russian aid, but are not members of any military alliance.

The strategy of the Soviets is to keep trouble stirring in Indonesia, Burma and elsewhere; to get Communists into new governments, and arouse anti-Western feeling throughout the area. The West's policy is to support anti-Communist governments in Korea, Formosa, Viet Nam, Thailand and elsewhere; to keep up pressure on Red China through trade bars and a policy of non-recognition to prevent it from replacing the Nationalist Chinese in the United Nations.

6. *The Cold War in the United Nations*

The Use of the Veto Power. It was believed that peace after World War II could be maintained only by friendly agreement among the nations powerful enough to enforce the peace. Therefore, the use of the veto in the Security Council of the U.N. was agreed upon as the best method to compel cooperation between the Big Five.

The United States favored the veto, but only as a last resort to safeguard national independence. The delegates who framed the Charter could not foresee that Russia would use the veto on more than 84 occasions. In 1947 the United States suggested that the veto should be used by the great powers only in cases involving diplomatic, economic or military sanctions to stop aggression. The Russians replied that only through the veto power could Russia protect herself in an organization dominated by anti-Communist states.

There are some who feel that the U.N. would accomplish more if it expelled Russia. Others feel that such an action would hasten and make permanent a world split between East and West. They argue that with Russia a member of the U.N., a two-way road toward cooperation is kept open between the opposing sides.

Disarmament and Atomic Energy Control. Since the end of World War II, statesmen everywhere have attempted to reduce arma-

ments, to advance the cause of peace and to prevent what will surely be the most terrible of all wars. The complicated problem of disarmament goes hand in hand with such political problems as the unification of Germany, the recognition of Communist China, and the peaceful settlement of Middle East tensions.

1. *The World's Arms.* It costs over 100 billion dollars to maintain the armed forces of the world today. This includes men and weapons. Nearly 20,000,000 men are under arms, of which the Soviet Union and its satellite nations have about 8,700,000; they have also about 46,000 planes. The Western nations have about 7,800,000 soldiers and 53,000 planes.

2. *Economic Dangers in the Armaments Race.* The heavy burden of armaments increases the threat of inflation. This in turn reduces purchasing power, cuts down social services and increases taxes. In 1957 the United States spent over \$40 billions for national security, Russia over \$30 billions, England nearly \$4.5 billions.

3. *Political Dangers.* The increase in number and kind of weapons makes it possible for a reckless dictator of a small country to plunge the whole world into an all-out war. In an unstable world, great power rests in the hands of the leaders of small nations.

4. *Military Dangers.* The world's great powers fear atom and hydrogen bombs, the difficulties of detecting and preventing an atomic attack by missiles, and the terrible effects of such an attack.

There are three aspects to the problem that require solution:

a. *Conventional Forces.* Both the West and the East want to reduce their military manpower. Each side has agreed to cuts: a total of 2,500,000 for the United States and Russia, and 750,000 for Britain and France. Russia has not, however, specified whether "military manpower" includes reserves, police and labor corps.

b. *Nuclear Weapons.* The United States wants to reduce nuclear weapons. Its program calls for ending production of fissionable materials (uranium, etc.) for weapons, and establishing an inspection system. It also favors the transfer of present stocks of fissionable materials from military to civilian use, no testing of nuclear weapons for about ten months, and the establishment of an international system to detect illegal tests.

The Russians favor an immediate halt on weapons testing for a two or three-year period, with the establishment of monitoring stations in Russia, the United States and elsewhere. However, they oppose stopping production of fissionable materials for weapons.

The West does not want to stop the testing program unless there is an agreement at the same time to stop the production of atom and hydrogen bombs. Both sides continued their testing of such

weapons in 1957-58, with Britain exploding her first hydrogen bomb. In September, 1959, the United States and Russia announced that they would discontinue nuclear weapons testing for another year.

c. Surprise Attack. The United States wants a foolproof system against surprise attack. It proposed "open skies" aerial inspection and on-the-ground inspection by control men with the right to go anywhere. The United States will permit air and ground inspection of the entire United States, Canada and Alaska in return for inspection of all of Russia.

Russia hedged. She proposed inspection of the western half of the United States from the Mississippi to the Pacific and most of western Europe, in exchange for inspection of eastern Siberia, the European satellites and a small part of western Russia. Inspection teams would be limited to certain posts, railroad junctions and airfields. Thus, agreement failed because Russia refused to accept the West's full inspection system.

The need for agreement was increased by the development of intermediate range and intercontinental ballistic missiles capable of flying 1500 to 5000 miles. The United States installed these missiles on the territory of its European allies, thus bringing Russia in easy range of her missiles.

Russia's first launching of earth satellites gave her a large psychological advantage in the cold war. However, the United States soon caught up. But Russia swept ahead in September, 1959, when she landed an object containing scientific instruments on the moon. The United States also sent another earth satellite into orbit. Thus, the propaganda race for outer space was again in full swing.

Russia Proposes New Disarmament Plan. Soviet Premier Khrushchev arrived in the United States on Sept. 15, 1959, to discuss world tensions with President Eisenhower. The President was to visit Russia later.

In a speech before the United Nations, Khrushchev proposed "that over a period of four years all states should effect total disarmament and should no longer have any means of waging war." This proposal left the question of controls unsettled. Methods of controlling disarmament and nuclear testing have been the biggest stumbling blocks thus far.

Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy. In 1957 an International Atomic Energy Agency was created through the United Nations, to supply materials and technical knowledge to nations seeking nuclear development for peaceful purposes. President Eisenhower pledged 11,000 pounds of uranium fuel to this agency. England, Russia,

India and other countries have also offered fissionable materials.

The atom is harnessed to peacetime use in medicine, industry, agriculture and power. Radioactive isotopes are used in the study and research of disease in plant growth, in the detection of impurities in steel production, and most important of all, in the production of power to run machines. These are only the beginnings of what may be the most important advance in man's control over nature.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Write on the line at the right of each statement or question the letter preceding the word or expression that best completes the statement or answers the question.



1. Which of the following has *not* been a serious problem since the close of World War II? (a) decreasing population, (b) displaced persons, (c) economic recovery, (d) military expenses. 1. _____
2. The population's food problem is greatest in (a) Africa, (b) Asia, (c) Europe, (d) Latin America. 2. _____
3. A nation behind the "Iron Curtain" is (a) Greece, (b) Poland, (c) Sweden, (d) Turkey. 3. _____
4. The purpose of the Schuman Plan is to (a) pool the coal and steel resources of western Europe, (b) bring West Germany into the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, (c) organize a European Army, (d) set up the Mutual Security Agency. 4. _____
5. The N.A.T.O.'s forces in Europe are known as an international army because they (a) are under the United Nations, (b) have headquarters in many cities of Europe, (c) resemble the old French Foreign Legion, (d) have officers and men assigned by the N.A.T.O. powers. 5. _____
6. A chief reason for Germany's importance in western Europe today is its (a) geographical position, (b) gold and uranium resources, (c) social security program, (d) schools and universities. 6. _____
7. Which of these areas bordering on Soviet Russia is an ally of the Western democracies? (a) Manchuria, (b) Poland, (c) Rumania, (d) Turkey. 7. _____
8. Which of these men has been Chancellor of the West German Republic? (a) Alfred Gruenther, (b) Konrad Adenauer, (c) Erwin Rommel, (d) Ernst Reuter. 8. _____
9. Which is an effort to achieve economic unity in western Europe? (a) Cominform, (b) Kellogg-Briand Pact, (c) Munich Conference, (d) Schuman Plan. 9. _____
10. The city of Berlin is located (a) in East Germany, (b) in West Germany, (c) on the border between East Germany and West Germany, (d) on the border between East Germany and Poland. 10. _____
11. Each of the following has been given Point Four assistance *except* (a) India, (b) Pakistan, (c) Holland, (d) Indonesia. 11. _____

12. The Truman Doctrine dealt originally with events in the area (a) around Korea, (b) around the Dardanelles, (c) of southeast Asia, (d) of western Europe. 12.
13. A Communist country that is *not* within the Russian sphere of influence is (a) Turkey, (b) Poland, (c) Rumania, (d) Yugoslavia. 13.
14. The Truman Doctrine was to Greece and Turkey what the Eisenhower Doctrine is to (a) Egypt, (b) the Middle East, (c) India, (d) the Philippines. 14.
15. The nations in Euromarket have agreed to (a) set uniform tariffs on goods imported from countries outside of the common market, (b) cut off trade with nations outside the common market, (c) abolish tariffs on all goods exchanged by the member states, (d) end the European Coal and Steel Community. 15.
16. Of the following which two are S.E.A.T.O. members and have received independence since World War II? (a) Thailand and New Zealand, (b) Burma and Ceylon, (c) Pakistan and the Philippines, (d) all of the above. 16.
17. German unification is being held back because (a) Russia will not withdraw her forces from West Germany, (b) Russia will not permit free elections throughout Germany, (c) the Western countries cannot agree with Russia on the amount of reparations, (d) Chancellor Adenauer opposed it. 17.
18. Russia acquired from Japan in 1945 (a) Manchuria, (b) Kurile Islands, (c) Formosa, (d) Hong Kong. 18.
19. The purpose of the Berlin airlift was to (a) provide the government of Berlin with American-made planes, (b) enable Russia to take over Berlin, (c) maintain a land corridor between Berlin and the West, (d) prevent Berlin from falling into Russian hands. 19.
20. The capital of the West German Republic is (a) Berlin, (b) Bonn, (c) Frankfurt, (d) Munich. 20.
21. In 1958 West Germany agreed to (a) pay increased costs of Allied occupation forces, (b) end all manufacturing of war weapons, (c) accept atomic arms from the United States, (d) decrease its trade with Russia and increase it with the West. 21.
22. West Germany is a member of all the following agreements *except* (a) N.A.T.O., (b) Coal and Steel Community, (c) Euromarket, (d) Molotov Plan. 22.
23. East Germany has been recognized as an independent state by the Russian bloc of countries and (a) Yugoslavia, (b) England, (c) Italy, (d) West Germany. 23.
24. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization was answered by the Communists with the creation of the (a) Molotov Plan, (b) Warsaw Pact, (c) Moscow Conference, (d) Cominform. 24.
25. A United Arab Republic was formed in 1958 when Egypt was united with (a) Saudi Arabia, (b) Jordan, (c) Lebanon, (d) Syria. 25.
26. The Middle East Arab state that is a member of the Bagdad Pact is (a) Egypt, (b) Lebanon, (c) Iran, (d) Syria. 26.
27. Russian influence in the Middle East has been increasing through (a) the sale of arms to these countries, (b) the giving of economic and technical assistance, (c) propaganda, (d) all of these ways. 27.

- 28 The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (a) has a unified military command, (b) includes the leading Asiatic nations in its membership, (c) is mainly a consultative defense agreement, (d) maintains headquarters in Karachi. 28.
- 29 The leading nation in the Far East pursuing a neutral policy is (a) Japan, (b) India, (c) Pakistan, (d) China. 29.
- 30 Which of the following is similar to the Technical Assistance Program? (a) the Colombo Plan, (b) Manila Pact (c) Anzus Pact, (d) U.N.E.S.C.O. 30.
- 31 The basic difference between the United States and Soviet ideas on disarmament has been (a) the Monroe Doctrine, (b) a ban on nuclear weapons, (c) the size of naval forces, (d) how to pay costs. 31.
32. The war in the Middle East in 1956 was halted when (a) the United Nations General Assembly voted to boycott the belligerents, (b) one of the belligerents sued for peace, (c) all the territory of one of the belligerents was overrun by the armies of the other belligerents, (d) the belligerents agreed to a cease fire. 32.
33. The Bandung Conference of 1955 (a) was the first international conference at which only non-European states were represented, (b) favored socialization of all industry, (c) opposed economic aid from either the communist or democratic forces, (d) advocated the abolition of the United Nations. 33.
34. As a result of a plebiscite held in 1957, the Saar voted (a) to retain its independence politically and economically, (b) to retain its independence but join with France in a tariff union, (c) to unite with West Germany, (d) to remain under United Nations supervision and protection. 34.

NEGATIVE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

In each of the following groups, select the letter of the item that does not belong.

- 1 Territories annexed by Russia since 1939: (a) Sakhalin Island, (b) Eastern Poland, (c) Estonia, (d) East Germany.
2. Russian satellite states: (a) Albania, (b) North Korea, (c) Yugoslavia, (d) Hungary.
3. Members of N.A.T.O.: (a) United States, (b) Spain, (c) West Germany, (d) Turkey.
4. European economic and political unity: (a) Euratom, (b) Iron and Steel Community, (c) Council of Europe, (d) United Nations.
5. Members of the Bagdad Pact: (a) Britain, (b) United States, (c) Iran, (d) Pakistan.
6. Aggressors in the Middle East in 1956: (a) Egypt, (b) France, (c) Israel, (d) Britain.
- 7 Mutual Security Pacts signed by U. S.: (a) Japan, (b) Philippines, (c) India, (d) Australia.

8. Neutralist states in the Far East: (a) India, (b) Pakistan, (c) Indonesia, (d) Burma.
9. Nations which have set off atomic explosions: (a) Japan, (b) England, (c) Russia, (d) U. S.
10. Members of S.E.A.T.O.: (a) Japan, (b) England, (c) U. S., (d) Pakistan.

ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Discuss each of two of the following: (a) present peacetime uses of atomic power for commercial use, (b) obstacles to the rapid development of atomic power for commercial use, (c) effects of the development of atomic weapons on international relations.
2. Show why each of *three* of the following small countries is of great importance in world affairs: Egypt, Iran, Israel, Korea, Yugoslavia.
3. Describe briefly the United States plan and the Russian plan for international control of atomic energy.
4. Explain the purpose of each of *three* of the following: Benelux, N.A.T.O., Schuman Plan, Euromarket.
5. State whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements, giving at least two facts to support your position in each case: (a) International cooperation is more important today than it was 100 years ago. (b) Franco-German relations are a key to European peace. (c) Western Europe is nearer unity now than at any time since the days of the Roman Empire. (d) The non-Communist world has been winning the cold war against Soviet Russia. (e) The unification of East and West Germany would be a threat to world peace.
6. Within the past 100 years Germany has been faced twice with the problem of unification. (a) Give two important steps that led to the unification of Germany in the 1800's. (b) State the circumstances that gave rise to a divided Germany in 1945. (c) Tell two ways by which the Western democracies have tried to strengthen the West German Republic.
7. (a) Explain what is meant by the term "Cold War." (b) Discuss three ways by which the Western democracies are trying to win the Cold War.
8. Compare N.A.T.O. and S.E.A.T.O. as to (a) purpose, (b) membership, (c) organization and structure.
9. Describe the role of propaganda in the "Cold War."
10. The Communists have accomplished more in the Near and Middle East than the Czarist government. Show how this statement is true.

GLOSSARY

- absolute monarchy* — a country ruled by a king or queen with unlimited power.
alchemy — false science, based on magic (for example, changing iron into gold).
anarchist — one who rebels against all authority.
anthropologist — a scientist who studies how early men lived and looked.
apartheid — a policy of segregation of the races (in force in South Africa).
archeologist — a scientist who studies fossils and remains of past human life.
aristocracy — government ruled by a small privileged class.
austerity — a national policy of doing with less food, gasoline, luxuries.
autarky — national economic self-sufficiency.
bicameral — government consisting of two legislative branches.
bourgeoisie — the middle class of professional and business men.
burgher — a middle class of rich merchants and master craftsmen (Middle Ages).
blitzkrieg — "lightning" war, heavy bombing followed by tanks and infantry (invented by Nazis).
capitalism — an economic system that involves risk and competition.
caste — the system of society in India that divides people into classes.
censor — one who judges the correctness of morals and conduct.
chauvinism — greatly exaggerated patriotism.
chivalry — the code of honor, customs and manners of knights.
citizenship — the position of a person in a country to which he owes allegiance, and from which he expects protection.
classicism — emphasis on reason rather than emotion in literature and art.
collective — a cooperative farm under state control (as in the U.S.S.R.).
collective security — joining together for mutual protection.
compensation — payment or reward.
confederation — a group of separate states united for joint action.
conservative — one who is satisfied with things as they are.
cuneiform — writing with wedge-shaped characters.
coup d'etat — an attempt to seize control of a government by force.
democracy — government by the people (direct), or through elected representatives (indirect).
demotic — a simplified version of hieroglyphics.
despotism — government controlled by a tyrant.
dictator — a high-handed ruler with supreme authority of government.
diocese — district over which a bishop of the church has authority.
dynasty — a family of kings who rule in succession.
environment — surroundings and conditions affecting human life.
excommunication — the process of being expelled from the church.
exploited — being used for someone else's advantage.
extraterritoriality — a foreigner's privilege of being exempt from local laws.
fascist — a political party that ruthlessly suppresses all opposition.
feudalism — a governing system based on the relation of lord to vassal.
fief — the territory controlled by a lord.
fossil — an object or impression from past ages found in the earth.
freeman — one who has civil and political freedom as opposed to a slave.
free trade — business that is free from government restrictions.
geologist — a scientist who studies the history of the earth's formation.
helot — a slave or serf.
heretic — one who holds a belief different from that of his church.
hieroglyphics — writing with pictures for letters.
hydroelectric — the production of electricity by water power.
immortality — existing forever and ever.
imperialism — the extending of a nation's control over other lands.
indoctrination — instruction from a special point of view.
indulgence — religious privilege granted as a favor.
inflation — high prices due to large supply of money and a lack of goods to be bought.

- interdict* — church punishment barring whole groups of people from sacraments.
investiture — the formal ceremony of installing someone into office.
jingoism — a nation's foreign policy that advocates war.
kulak — rich Russian farmer.
laconic — brief, abrupt speech.
legitimacy — the condition of being genuine or lawful.
liberal — one who is independent and broadminded in his opinions.
limited monarchy — a kingdom whose ruler has limited powers.
marathon — a long-distance (26 miles) running race.
mercenaries — soldiers hired for service in a foreign army.
monasticism — secluded life devoted to religion.
monotheism — religious belief in only one god.
nationalism — devotion to the interests and unity of one's country.
nepmen — Russian business men who engage in private trade.
nepotism — favoritism in business or government shown to relatives because of relationship rather than merit.
nilhist — one who believes in revolution and terrorism.
obelisk — a tall, four-sided pointed pillar (Egyptian).
oligarchy — government in which supreme power is held by a few.
ostracism — being forced out of and shunned by the social group.
papyrus — a plant, sliced and pressed to make writing material.
partition — forced division of a country.
patrician — a person of noble birth or breeding.
patriotism — love of one's country.
pharaoh — the name for the ancient kings of Egypt.
philippic — a speech full of bitter accusations.
philosophy — the science which studies reality, human nature and thought.
phonetics — a system of spelling by speech sounds.
plebiscite — a general vote of the people.
polygamy — the custom of having more than one wife or husband at the same time.
polytheism — a religious belief in many gods.
prefecture — a local district headed by an administrative officer.
proletariat — the wage-earning class in a community.
protective tariff — customs duties charged on foreign goods to protect domestic producers.
publican — a tax collector.
putsch — a popular uprising against the government.
radical — one who favors rapid and sweeping changes in government.
reactionary — one who favors a return to things as they used to be.
renaissance — a new birth or revival.
reparation — payment by a defeated nation for its war damage.
republic — a country governed by elected representatives of the people.
sanskrit — the ancient language of the Hindus in India.
scholasticism — the study of logic, theology and metaphysics in the Middle Ages.
serf — a slave who was forbidden to leave the land on which he worked.
shintoisim — Japanese reverence for ancestors.
simony — the buying and selling of church positions.
socialism — government ownership of means of production and distribution.
status quo — the condition in which anything is at a particular moment.
subsidize — to aid by financial backing.
suffrage — the right to vote.
synthetics — imitation materials.
totalitarian — a government under the firm control of one political party.
tithe — the tenth part of one's income, given to the church.
tyranny — a government controlled by a cruel, ruthless ruler.
usury — the lending of money at a very high rate of interest.
vassal — one who pays homage to a lord in return for his protection.

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- 461-429 The Age of Pericles.
- 334-330 Conquests of Alexander the Great.
- 202 Rome defeats Carthage.
- 31-180 A.D. Roman Peace.
- 4 (?) Birth of Christ.
- 476 A. D. End of Roman Empire in the West.
- 597 Gregory, Bishop of Rome, establishes the Papacy.
- 622 Beginning of Mohammedanism.
- 1066 Norman conquest of England.
- 1095-1291 The Crusades.
- 1215 Signing of Magna Carta by King John of England.
- 1337-1453 Hundred Years' War; unification of France.
- 1454 (?) First book printed by Gutenberg's press.
- 1492 Columbus discovers America.
- 1519-1522 Magellan circumnavigates the earth.
- 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
- 1689 Bill of Rights ends Absolutism in England.
- 1763 End of Seven Years' War; England acquires colonial empire.
- 1769 Industrial Revolution begins.
- 1776 Declaration of Independence marks birth of the U.S.
- 1789 French Revolution begins.
- 1815 Napoleon is overthrown.
- 1903 First power-driven airplane flown by Wright Brothers.
- 1914-1918 World War I.
- 1917 Russian Revolution
- 1939-1945 World War II.
- 1945 The U.N. is organized; atomic bombs first used.
- 1947 Decline of imperialism: India, Pakistan independent.
- 1949 N.A.T.O. Pact against Russian expansion.
- 1950-1953 The Korean War.
- 1955 First summit meeting among U.S., Great Britain, France and the U.S.S.R.
- 1956 Hungarian uprising crushed by Soviets. Israel, Britain and France invade Egypt.
- 1957 New nation of Ghana. Tunisia becomes republic; Malaya becomes independent. Russia launches earth satellites.
- 1958 U. S. launches earth satellites. Alaska 49th U.S. State. French form 5th Republic. French Guinea becomes independent.
- 1959 Russia puts first man-made planet into orbit around sun.